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AN ENDOCHRONIC PLASTICITY THEORY FOR CONCRETE

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20 11 19 ABSTRACT Continue on reverse if necessary	and identify by block o	umber)			
A fully three-dimensional endochronic plasticity theory for plain concrete is developed to describe its multi-axial behavior over the stress range below that at which significant cracking occurs. The theory is isotropic and exhibits the important features of concrete behavior, including shear-volumetric coupling, effect of hydrostatic pressure on shear response, hardening, hysteretic effects and stress path dependence. The theory is based on the hypothesis that the current state of stress is a linear functional of the entire history of deformation, with the history defined with respect to a time scale, called intrinsic time, which is itself a property of the material at hand. The theory is proof-tested with remarkable success against an extensive set of complex multi-axial plain concrete data recently obtained by others with a true triaxial device. An analytical procedure for reducing the linear hereditary integral expressions for the stresses to a system of coupled linear ordinary differential equations is described, and a numerical approach is given for treating the resulting governing system of equations under either stress- or strain-controlled conditions.					
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PREFACE

This report describes research performed by S-CUBED as part of a continuing effort to develop improved analytical methods for modeling the constitutive behavior of concrete. The work was jointly supported by the Defense Nuclear Agency (Contract DNAOO1-84-C-0127) and the Air Force Office of Scientific Research (Contract F49620-84-C-0029). The Principal Investigator for both contracts was Dr. H. E. Read, and the corresponding Contract Technical Monitors were Mr. C. B. McFarland (DNA) and Lt. Col. L. D. Hokanson (AFOSR).

Dr. K. C. Valanis, Professor of Theoretical Mechanics at the University of Cincinnati, participated in the investigation through his continuing role as a consultant to S-CUBED.

The authors express their appreciation to Dr. D. H. Brownell, Jr., and Mr. R. G. Herrmann who provided excellent computational support throughout the course of the investigation.

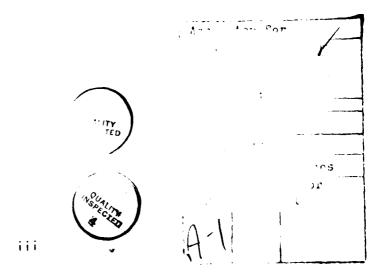


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SECTION 1

INTRODUCTION

The ability to predict the behavior and strength of reinforced concrete structures is often crucial for design purposes and depends very strongly on our understanding of, and capability to analytically model, the nonlinear response of plain concrete to applied stresses. From a constitutive modeling viewpoint, plain concrete is an exceedingly complex material whose constitutive properties under general load paths have, to date, largely eluded researchers. As noted by Chen and Suzuki, (1) a general constitutive relation capable of describing both pre- and post-failure behavior of plain concrete simply does not exist today. In fact, a general model capable of describing the behavior of plain concrete under all possible conditions, and yet is sufficiently simple for use in design applications, may be out of reach at the present time.

In recent years, a variety of nonlinear constitutive models has been proposed in the literature for describing the response of plain concrete to short-term loads. These models have been based upon nonlinear elasticity, (2) classical plasticity, (3) hypo-elasticity, (4) endochronic plasticity, (5,6) bounding surface plasticity, (7,8) continuous damage theory, (9,10) plastic-fracture theory (11) and microstructural considerations. (12)* In almost all cases, the models were developed from, and validated against, data from standard laboratory tests in which at least two of the principal stresses were equal. Some true triaxial experiments have also been performed on concrete, but these have been largely limited to proportional,

^{*.} For a review and critique of various modeling approaches, see Chen and Ting. $^{\left(13\right)}$

monotonically-increasing loading to failure. (14,16) the results from these tests are inadequate for identifying and characterizing the salient constitutive features of concrete under arbitrary load paths, unloading, stress reversals and reloading, which are generally encountered in practice.

To fill the need for data on the response of plain concrete to complex, multi-axial loading paths, Gerstle, Ko and coworkers recently conducted an extensive laboratory testing program, (17) using a true triaxial test device designed specifically for use in studying the multi-axial behavior of geomaterials. This device independently applies three normal stresses of up to 15,000 psi to the sides of 4-inch cubical specimens. The focus of this experimental study was confined to the range of load levels below that at which significant cracking of the plain concrete would occur. A total of 47 different non-standard stress paths were investigated. Of these, a number of paths were chosen to provide insight into possible stress-path dependence.

From the results of this study, it was found that plain concrete exhibits behavior under complex loading which appears to be not well represented by any of the current models. In particular, it was found that the loading surface has the form of a box in principal stress space, with sides parallel to the principal stress axes; hence, the projection of the loading surface on the deviatoric plane is a triangle, which is aligned with the principal deviatoric stress axes in the deviatoric plane so that each of its sides is perpendicular to one of the principal axes. Thus, the loading surface is not affine with the failure surface. Except near the failure surface, the plastic flow law appears to be associated, with the plastic strain rate vector normal to the loading surface at the current stress point. As the failure surface is approached, the plastic strain rate vector

begins to deviate from normality and ultimately becomes normal to the failure surface.

In an effort to analytically represent the results from their experimental study, Stankowski and Gerstle developed a simple, hypoelastic-type constitutive model (18) that is an extension of a previous model by Gerstle. (19) The model was applied to several of the complex axisymmetric stress paths studied experimentally and, considering the simplicity of the model, it showed remarkable predictive capability. Several other more complex concrete models (11,20) were also exercised around the same paths by Gerstle and Willam, (33) but they failed to show comparable predictive capabilities. While the simple model has shown its ability to capture many of the response features of plain concrete under several axisymmetric stress histories, it has not, to date, been extended to, nor validated against, more general loading conditions. In order to capture certain features of behavior that are beyond the scope of the simple theory, and to have a theory that is applicable to general multi-axial loading states, we explored the potential offered by the new endochronic theory for describing the extensive experimental results given in Reference 17.

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The new endochronic plasticity theory was originally developed by Valanis, (21) and has since been applied with remarkable success to various problems of metal plasticity (22,23) and geomaterials. (24) The theory is based upon the hypothesis that the current state of stress in a material is a linear functional of the entire history of deformation, with the history defined with respect to a time scale, called intrinsic time, which is itself a property of the material at hand. Such an approach does not require the notion of yield surface nor the specification of unloading-reloading criteria, and these unique features make the theory particularly attractive for describing

the behavior of concrete, which does not exhibit a well-defined yield point. It should be noted that the new endochronic plasticity theory considered herein is substantially different from those versions of the older theory used to develop the concrete models described in References 5, 6, and 27. Proper closure of hysteresis loops is guaranteed in the present theory, (21) so that artifices, such as the jump-kinematic hardening introduced into the concrete model described in Reference 27, are not required. Some of the basic inelastic response features of this new theory have recently been discussed by Trangenstein and Read (25) and Murakami and Read. (26)

The purpose of the present report is to formulate an endochronic plasticity theory for plain concrete, based upon the general framework described in Reference 21, and to explore the capabilities of this new theory to predict the wide range of experimental results for complex multi-axial load paths reported in Reference 17. For this purpose, the model is first fit to a small subset of the data, and then exercised around a variety of different non-standard stress paths not used in fitting the model. It is shown that the model can successfully predict the nonlinear behavior of concrete under these complex loading conditions. This appears to provide strong indication that the present model has captured the basic constitutive characteristics of plain concrete quite well.

It should be noted that the scope of the present model is currently limited to stress levels in plain concrete that do not produce significant cracking. The model is isotropic and therefore incapable of describing stress-induced anisotropy produced by significant microcracking with preferred orientation. In many practical applications, this limitation may not prove to be overly

restrictive, since there are obviously many instances where a plain concrete structure is driven into the nonlinear regime but not to the point where substantial cracking occurs.

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SECTION 2

THERMODYNAMIC FOUNDATIONS OF THEORY

Endochronic plasticity is founded on the theory of irreversible thermodynamics of internal variables. The foundations have been laid in detail elsewhere (see Ref. 21, for example) and will not elaborated upon here. For the sake of completeness, however, we begin by recalling the basic equations.

2.1 THERMODYNAMIC RELATIONS.

It is stipulated at the outset that concrete is macroscopically homogeneous and isotropic even though at the local level it is highly heterogeneous and anisotropic. Its mechanical response to strain (or stress) is also highly dissipative and therefore inelastic. In the thermodynamic formulation, interior dissipative mechanisms are formally represented by internal variables. Isotropy permits the separation of such mechanisms into deviatoric and hydrostatic ones, represented respectively by the internal variables \mathbf{g}_r and \mathbf{p}_r , where \mathbf{g}_r are tensors of second order and \mathbf{p}_r are scalars. In the context of small deformation theory, ψ , the free energy of deformation, is quadratic in the strain tensor and the internal variables and can therefore be partitioned in the case of isotropic materials into its deviatoric and hydrostatic parts. Thus

$$\psi = \psi_{\mathsf{D}} + \psi_{\mathsf{H}} \tag{2.1}$$

Specifically

$$\psi_{D} = \psi_{D}(g, g_{r}) \tag{2.2}$$

$$\psi_{\mathsf{H}} = \psi_{\mathsf{H}}(\epsilon, \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{r}}) \tag{2.3}$$

where \underline{e} is the deviatoric part of the strain tensor \underline{e} and ϵ is the hydrostatic part. Thus

$$\xi = g + \bar{I} \epsilon$$
(2.4)

where $\underline{\mathbf{I}}$ is the unit matrix. It has been shown that in the case of materials which behave elastically at the onset of unloading or reloading (points of reversal in the sign of the strain rate) ψ_D can be further partitioned into an elastic and plastic part such that

$$\psi_{\mathbf{D}} = \psi_{\mathbf{D}}^{\mathbf{e}} + \psi_{\mathbf{D}}^{\mathbf{p}} \tag{2.5}$$

where

$$\psi_{D}^{\mathbf{e}} = \psi_{D}^{\mathbf{e}} \left(\mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{e}} \right) \tag{2.6}$$

$$\psi_{D}^{p} = \psi_{D}^{p} \left(g^{p}, g_{r} \right) \tag{2.7}$$

and

$$de^{e} = \frac{ds}{2\mu}$$

$$e^{p} = e - e^{e}$$
, (2.8)

 $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is the deviatoric stress tensor and μ is the elastic shear modulus. In a similar fashion

$$\psi_{\mathsf{H}} = \psi_{\mathsf{H}}^{\mathsf{e}} + {}^{\mathsf{p}}_{\mathsf{H}} \tag{2.9}$$

where

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$$\psi_{\mathsf{H}}^{\mathsf{e}} = \psi_{\mathsf{H}}^{\mathsf{e}}(\epsilon) \tag{2.10}$$

$$\psi_{H}^{p} = \psi_{H}^{e} \left(\epsilon^{p}, p_{r} \right)$$
 (2.11)

and

$$d\epsilon^{e} = \frac{d\sigma}{K} \tag{2.12}$$

$$\epsilon^{\mathsf{p}} = \epsilon - \epsilon^{\mathsf{e}}$$
(2.13)

 σ is the hydrostatic stress and K is the elastic bulk modulus. In parallel to Eq. (2.4)

$$Q = S + I\sigma \qquad (2.14)$$

The topological interpretation of the above partitioning in the deviatoric case is given in Figure 1. The same interpretation applies to the hydrostatic case.

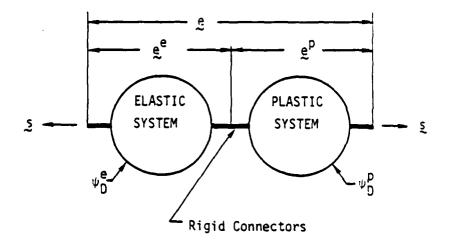


Figure 1. An elastic system and a plastic system in series.

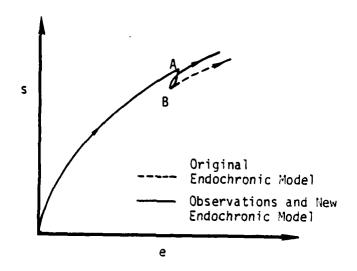


Figure 2. Elastic response at unloading and reloading.

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The thermodynamic relations that apply are the following: (21)

$$-\frac{\partial \psi_{D}^{P}}{\partial g_{r}} dg_{r} > 0 , ||dg_{r}|| < 0$$
 (2.16)

$$\sigma = \frac{\partial \psi_{\mathsf{H}}^{\mathsf{P}}}{\partial \epsilon^{\mathsf{P}}} \tag{2.17}$$

$$-\frac{\partial \psi_{H}^{p}}{\partial p_{r}} dp_{r} > 0 , |dp_{r}| > 0$$
 (2.18)

Also

$$\mathbf{z} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{y_0^e}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^e} \tag{2.19}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{\partial \psi_{H}^{e}}{\partial \epsilon^{e}} \tag{2.20}$$

The above equations are obtained by applying the theory of irreversible thermodynamics to each individual system in Figure 1. Strict interpretation of the topological arrangement suggests that $\#\beta$ cannot depend on $e^{\mathbf{p}}$ and conversely $\#\beta$ cannot depend on $e^{\mathbf{p}}$.

^{*.} However, in the actual material, internal changes associated with the plastic strain may affect the elastic moduli μ_{e} and K_{e} and thus render ψ_{D} and ψ_{H} dependent of \underline{e}^{p} and ε^{p} .

We note again that the free energies all have quadratic forms which have been shown to be reducible to the canonical forms given below

$$\psi_{\mathsf{D}}^{\mathsf{e}} = \mu_{\mathsf{e}} \left| \left| \mathsf{e}^{\mathsf{e}} \right| \right|^2 \tag{2.21}$$

$$\psi_{\mathsf{D}}^{\mathsf{p}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum \mu_{\mathsf{r}} \left| \left| \mathbf{g}^{\mathsf{p}} - \mathbf{g}_{\mathsf{r}} \right| \right|^{2} \tag{2.22}$$

$$\psi_{H}^{e} = \frac{1}{2} K_{e} (\epsilon^{e})^{2}$$
 (2.23)

$$\psi_{H}^{p} = \frac{1}{2} \sum K_{r} \left(\epsilon^{p} - p_{r} \right)^{2}$$
 (2.24)

It is physically appealing to introduce at this juncture the concept of internal forces $\textbf{Q}_{\textbf{r}}$ and $\textbf{P}_{\textbf{r}}$ such that

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$$Q_r = -\frac{\partial \psi_0^p}{\partial g_r} \tag{2.25}$$

$$P_{r} = -\frac{\partial \psi_{H}^{p}}{\partial p_{r}} \tag{2.26}$$

It has been shown in previous work that q_r and p_r represent internal displacements either in terms of assemblies of mechanical models (21), slip in crystals (31) or motion of atoms grouped together in terms of specific energy states (32). Then in view of Eqs. (2.16) and (2.25) on one hand and Eqs. (2.17) and (2.26) on the other,

$$Q_r \cdot dQ_r > 0 , ||dQ_r|| > 0$$
 (2.27)

$$P_{r} dp_{r} > 0$$
 , $|dp_{r}| > 0$ (2.28)

The above equations are a statement to the fact that the increment of work done by an internal force is always positive, unless the associated internal variable is constant in which case the increment of work is zero.

2.2 EVOLUTION EQUATIONS.

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Inequalities (2.27) and (2.28) may be written in the alternative **rate** form

$$g_r \circ g_r > 0 \tag{2.29}$$

$$P_{p} \stackrel{\bullet}{p} > 0 \tag{2.30}$$

where a superposed dot indicates differentiation with respect to time.

In linear time-dependent systems

$$\mathbf{Q}_r = \mathbf{b}_r^{(1)} \, \mathbf{g}_r \tag{2.31}$$

$$P_{r} = b_{r}^{(2)} \dot{P}_{r}^{*}$$
 (2 32)

The above equations may be viewed as "internal constitutive equations," or "rate equations" because they relate the internal forces

(linearly) to the rate of change of the internal displacements. In traditional thermodynamics they are regarded as the "Onsager Relations" since they relate (linearly) the dissipative (internal) forces to the "fluxes." Note that they satisfy the thermodynamic inequalities (2.29) and (2.30) if

$$b_r^{(1)} > 0$$
 , $b_r^{(2)} > 0$ (2.32 and 2.33)

for all r.

We observe that Eqs. (2.31) and (2.32) in conjunction with Eqs. (2.25) and (2.26) give the "evolution equations"

$$\frac{\partial \psi_{\mathbf{D}}^{\mathbf{p}}}{\partial g_{\mathbf{r}}} + b_{\mathbf{r}}^{(1)} \dot{g}_{\mathbf{r}} = 0 \tag{2.34}$$

$$\frac{\partial v_H^p}{\partial p_n} + b_r^{(2)} \dot{p}_r = 0 \tag{2.35}$$

Equations (2.22) and (2.24) in conjunction with Eqs. (2.34) and (2.35) respectively give linear differential equations in g_r and p_r from which these can be calculated if one knows the history of plastic strain. Specifically these equations are:

$$\mu_{r} g_{r} + b_{r}^{(1)} g_{r} = \mu_{r} e^{p}$$
 (2.36)

$$K_{\Gamma} p_{\Gamma} + b_{\Gamma}^{(2)} \stackrel{\bullet}{p}_{\Gamma} = K_{\Gamma} \epsilon^{p} \tag{2.37}$$

These may also be given in terms of the internal forces Q_r and P_r upon use of Eqs. (2.25) and (2.26). Thus when μ_r and K_r are constant,

$$\frac{\mu_r}{b_r^{(1)}} \mathfrak{Q}_r + \frac{d\mathfrak{Q}_r}{dt} = \mu_r \frac{d\mathfrak{g}^p}{dt}$$
 (2.38)

$$\frac{K_r}{b_r^{(2)}} P_r + \frac{dP_r}{dt} = K_r \frac{d\epsilon^p}{dt}$$
 (2.39)

2.3 THE NOTION OF INTRINSIC TIME.

In materials which are history dependent but rate-indifferent "newtonian" time is <u>not</u> a proper time scale for the formulation of evolution equations. The difficulty lies in the fact that in such materials the stress is a function of the deformation path but <u>not</u> of the <u>rate</u> at which the path is traversed. This fact was the basis of the idea proposed by the first author in 1971 (28) that every material posses an intrinsic time scale with respect to which the evolution equations of such material should be formulated.

With reference to System 2 in Figure 1, we note that the deformation of that system is defined by the plastic strain tensor $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^p$. We define therefore a path in the plastic strain space whose length increment dz is given by the relation

$$dz^{2} = P_{ijk\ell} d\epsilon_{ij}^{p} d\epsilon_{k\ell}^{p}$$
 (2.40)

We stipulate that the tensor $\overset{P}{\approx}$ is isotropic. Thus it admits the representation

$$P_{ijk\ell} = k_1^2 \delta_{ij} \delta_{k\ell} + k_2^2 \delta_{ik} \delta_{j\ell}$$
 (2.41)

which when combined with Eq. (2.40) admits the result

$$dz^{2} = k_{1}^{2} d\epsilon_{kk}^{p} d\epsilon_{ii}^{p} + k_{2}^{2} d\epsilon_{ik}^{p} d\epsilon_{ik}^{p}$$
(2.42)

or, within an immaterial multiplicative constant,

$$dz^{2} = \left| \left| dg^{p} \right| \right|^{2} + k^{2} \left| d\varepsilon^{p} \right|^{2}$$
 (2.43)

where $\left|\left|d\xi^{p}\right|\right|^{2}=de_{ij}^{p}de_{ij}^{p}$, $\left|d\epsilon^{p}\right|$ is the absolute value of $d\epsilon^{p}$ and k is a material parameter.

If one retains the form of the evolution Eqs. (2.31) and (2.32) and, therefore, (2.34) and (2.35) and regards dz in Eq. (2.40) as an intrinsic time measure then in terms of this time scale z Eqs. (2.34) and (2.35) become

$$\frac{\partial \psi_0^p}{\partial g_r} + b_r^{(1)} \frac{dg_r}{dz} = 0 \tag{2.44}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi_{H}^{p}}{\partial p_{r}} + b_{r}^{(2)} \frac{dp_{r}}{dz} = 0 \tag{2.45}$$

These two Eqs. lead to the counterparts of Eqs. (2.38) and (2.39) as shown below.

$$\frac{\mu_{r}}{b_{r}^{(1)}} \mathfrak{D}_{r} + \frac{d\mathfrak{D}_{r}}{dz} = \mu_{r} \frac{d\mathfrak{E}^{p}}{dz}$$
 (2.46)

$$\frac{K_r}{b_r^{(2)}} P_r + \frac{dP_r}{dz} \approx K_r \frac{d\epsilon^p}{dz}$$
 (2.47)

Equations (2.15) and (2.17) give the relations between the stresses and the internal forces. Specifically in view of Eqs. (2.22) and (2.24)

$$\sigma = \sum_{r} P_{r} \tag{2.49}$$

Equations (2.43) and (2.46 - 2.49), together with Eqs. (2.8) and (2.12), provide a complete constitutive description of a dissipative, rate-independent (plastic) material, subject to the above stipulations.

2.4 INTEGRAL FORM OF THE EQUATIONS

In general the resistance tensors $b_r^{(1)}$ and $b_r^{(2)}$ are not constant but depend on other variables associated with the deformed state of a material. A propos of this eventuality we set

$$b_r^{(1)} = F_s b_{or}^{(1)}$$
 (2.50)

$$b_r^{(2)} = F_H b_{or}^{(2)}$$
 (2.51)

where $F_{\rm S}$ and $F_{\rm H}$ are specified on the basis of the observed response of a particular material. This question will be dealt with in the next section. Let

$$a_{r} = \frac{\mu_{r}}{b_{or}^{(1)}}$$
 (2.52)

$$\lambda_{r} = \frac{K_{r}}{b_{or}^{(2)}} \tag{2.53}$$

where $b_{or}^{(1)}$ and $b_{or}^{(2)}$ are constants.

Further we define intrinsic time scales z_s and z_H by the relation

$$dz_{s} = \frac{dz}{F_{e}}$$
 (2.54a)

$$dz_{H} = \frac{dz}{kF_{H}}$$
 (2.54b)

where k in Eq. (2.54) is the same as the parameter k appearing in the definition of intrinsic time given by Eq. (2.43). The appearance of k in Eq. (2.54) is not purely formal but has the advantage that the pure hydrostatic response so derived is independent of k, as will be shown later.

In the light of the above definitions, Eqs. (2.46) and (2.47) become

$$a_r g_r + \frac{dg_r}{dz_s} = \mu_r \frac{dg^p}{dz_s}$$
 (2.55)

$$\lambda_r P_r + \frac{dP_r}{dz_H} = K_r \frac{d\epsilon^P}{dz_H}$$
 (2.56)

Let the reference configuration be one at which $z_H = z_s = 0$. We define a "natural configuration" as one at which $\mathfrak{Q}_{\Gamma}(0) = 0$, $P_{\Gamma} = 0$. There are, of course, configurations (initially strained or arising because of a nonequilibrium thermomechanical reference state) in which $\mathfrak{Q}_{\Gamma}(0) \neq 0$, $P_{\Gamma}(0) \neq 0$. Thus for greater generality we set

$$Q_r(0) = Q_r^0$$
, $P_r(0) = P_r^0$ (2.57a,b)

Equations (2.55) and (2.56) may now be integrated subjected to the initial conditions (2.57a,b) to give

$$Q_r = Q_r^0 e^{-\alpha_r z} + \mu_r \begin{cases} z & -\alpha_r (z_s - z') & \frac{de^p}{dz'} \\ 0 & \frac{dz'}{dz'} \end{cases}$$
 (2.58a)

$$P_{r} = P_{r}^{o} e^{-\lambda_{r} z_{H}} + K_{r} \int_{0}^{z_{H}} e^{-\lambda_{r} (z_{H} - z')} \frac{d\epsilon^{p}}{dz'} dz' \qquad (2.58b)$$

Use of Eqs. (2.48) and (2.49) gives the stress in terms of convolution integrals of the plastic strain history as follows

$$\sigma = \sum_{r} p_{r}^{o} e^{-\lambda_{r} z_{H}} + \begin{cases} z_{H} \\ \phi(z_{H} - z') \frac{\partial \epsilon^{p}}{\partial z'} dz' \end{cases}$$
 (2.60)

where

$$\rho = \sum_{r} \mu_{r} e^{-a_{r}^{2} s} \tag{2.61}$$

$$\rho = \sum_{r} \mu_{r} e^{-\alpha_{r}^{2} s}$$

$$\phi = \sum_{r} K_{r} e^{-\beta_{r}^{2} H}$$

$$(2.61)$$

The condition that s = 0 in the reference state requires that

$$\sum_{r} \mathfrak{g}_{r}^{o} = \mathfrak{Q} \tag{2.63}$$

whereas the condition that $\sigma = 0$ in the refrence state requires that

$$\sum_{r} P_{r}^{o} = 0 \tag{2.64}$$

If the reference state is a "natural" state, then

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} z_{H} \\ \phi(z_{H}-z') \frac{d\epsilon^{p}}{dz'} dz' \end{cases}$$
 (2.66)

2.5 SINGULAR KERNELS.

It was shown by the first author (21) that if the kernel $\rho(z_s)$ is weakly singular in the sense that $\rho(0) = \infty$ but integrable,

$$\int_{0}^{z_{s}} \rho(z_{s}') dz_{s}' \langle \infty , z_{s} \rangle \infty$$
(2.67)

then the hysteresis loop of a material in the first quadrant of the stress-strain space is closed. It was also shown that the material response at unloading and reloading points is elastic in the sense of Figure 2. The reason for this is that

$$\frac{d\tau}{d\gamma^{p}}\Big|_{A} = \frac{d\tau}{d\gamma^{p}}\Big|_{B} = \frac{d\tau}{d\gamma^{p}}\Big|_{C} = \infty$$
 (2.68)

because of the singularity of the kernel. The elastic response at these points is then the response of the elastic system of Figure 1.

In numerical computations the singular kernel is approximated by a Prony series as in Eq. (2.61), in which care is taken so that $\rho(0)$, where

$$\rho(0) = \sum_{\Gamma} \mu_{\Gamma} \quad , \qquad (2.69)$$

is a very large number in the sense that

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$$\rho(0) \gg \mu_{\mathbf{e}} \tag{2.70}$$

where $\mu_{\mathbf{e}}$ is the elastic slope at the loading point A of Figure 2.

SECTION 3

SPECIFIC FORM OF THEORY FOR PLAIN CONCRETE

The application of endochronic plasticity to metals is facilitated by three assumptions which are quite realistic:

- (i) Under moderate hydrostatic stress,* the hydrostatic response of metals is elastic.
- (ii) A constant moderate hydrostatic stress does not affect the mechanical response of a metal in shear.
- (iii) Shearing at constant hydrostatic stress does not induce a change in the hydrostatic strain.

In concrete the above assumptions are not realistic.

In reference to item (i) above, the hydrostatic behavior of concrete in compression is illustrated in Figure 3. It is initially convex becoming concave and asymptotically elastic. Upon unloading at A to a point B a significant amount of plastic strain, $\epsilon_{\rm B}$ results. There is obviously a great deal of hardening taking place, which affects dramatically the subsequent loading-unloading-releading behavior as illustrated in Figure 3. While in metals hardening, in general, is the result of multiplication of dislocations, in concrete it is very much a function of compaction. In both cases however the agents of hardening are the resistance coefficients \mathbf{b}^Γ and in this particular instance, $\mathbf{b}^\Gamma_{(2)}$. Thus while in metals one achieves

^{*.} Of the order of the yield stress in tension.

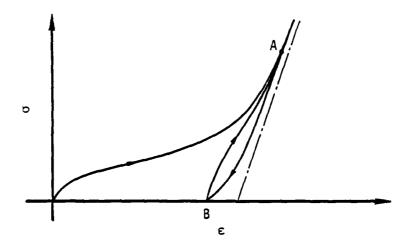
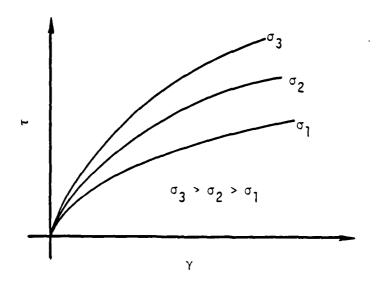


Figure 3. Typical response of plain concrete to pure hydrostatic compression.



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Figure 4. Shear response as a function of the hydrostatic compression.

hardening by letting b^{Γ} be an increasing function of z, in concrete, to account for the compaction effect in the hydrostat, we have set

$$b_{(2)}^{r} = b_{(2)}^{r} F_{H}(\epsilon^{p})$$
(3.1)

where F_H is a monotonically increasing function of $\epsilon^{\mbox{\scriptsize p}}.$

In reference to item (ii), the shear response depends strongly on the existing level of hydrostatic stress. This effect is illustrated schematically in Figure 4 where the shear stress is plotted versus the shear strain under monotonic loading conditions and at various levels of constant hydrostatic stress. In regard to item (iii), the mechanical response of concrete shows strong shear-hydrostatic interaction in that shearing at constant hydrostatic stress produces a significant change in the hydrostatic strain and vice versa. As will be shown subsequently, endochronic plasticity accounts for this effect through the intrinsic time and specifically by virtue of the coupling constant k which appears in Eq. (2.43). Note that in materials which are plastically incompressible, $d\epsilon^p = 0$. In such materials shear-hydrostatic interaction is absent.

3.1 HYDROSTATIC RESPONSE.

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Determination of the material functions $\phi(z_H)$ and $F_H(\varepsilon^P)$. It is assumed at the outset that the initial state is a natural state in which case the hydrostatic response is given by Eq. (2.66) which we write in the explicit form

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} z_{H} \\ \phi(z_{H} - z') \frac{d\epsilon^{p}}{dz'} dz' \end{cases}$$
 (3.2)

Under monotonic loading conditions, and in view of Eqs. (2.43) and (2.54), it follows that

$$\frac{d\epsilon^{p}}{dz_{H}} = F_{H} \tag{3.3}$$

Thus letting

$$dS_{H} = |d\epsilon^{p}| \tag{3.4}$$

it follows that

$$dz_{H} = \frac{k \ d\epsilon^{P}}{kF_{H}(\epsilon^{P})} = \frac{dS_{H}}{F_{H}(\epsilon^{P})}$$
(3.5)

Under monotonic straining conditions $dz_H = d\epsilon^P$ hence

$$d\varsigma_{H} = \frac{d\epsilon^{p}}{F_{H}(\epsilon^{p})} \tag{3.6}$$

Thus Eq. (3.2) becomes

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} z_{H} \\ \phi(z_{H} - z') F_{H}(\epsilon^{p'}) dz' \end{cases}$$
 (3.7)

Two material functions, therefore, are necessary and sufficient to determine the hydrostatic response: the kernel $\phi(z_H)$ and the hardening function $F_H(\epsilon^p)$.

3.1.1 The Hardening Function FH.

This function will be examined in reference to the hydrostatic stress-strain curve shown in Figure 5. The curve ON represents the stress response corresponding to $F_H=1$. In the initial stage $(\epsilon^P \le 0A)$ F_H is substantially linear. In the stage $0A < \epsilon^P \le 0B$ it is substantially hyperbolic. In the final stage $\epsilon^P > 0B$ $\sigma + \infty$ as $\epsilon^P + \epsilon^P_C$, since there is a limiting material compressibility beyond which the material cannot be compressed no matter how high a stress σ is applied.

We shall take the position that

$$F_{H} = e^{\beta \epsilon^{p}} \tag{3.8}$$

which, in the range $\epsilon^{\mathbf{p}} \le 0$ A, we can write as

$$F_{H} = 1 + \beta \epsilon^{p} + O(\epsilon^{p})^{2}$$
 (3.9)

The linear representation of F_H inherent in Eq. (3.9) affords an explicit method of determination of the value of β and the kernel $\phi(z_H)$.

3.1.2 Method of Analysis.

It follows from Eqs. (3.67) and (3.9) that

$$dz_{H} = \frac{d\epsilon^{P}}{1 + \beta\epsilon^{P}} \tag{3.10}$$

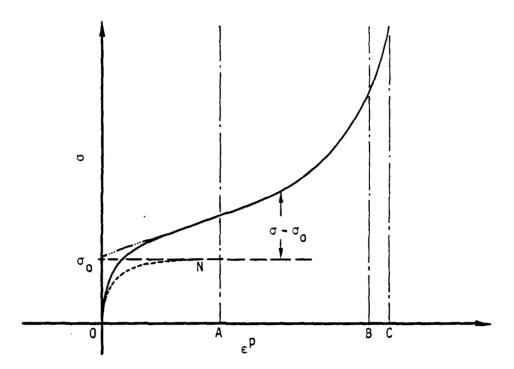


Figure 5. Pressure versus plastic volumetric strain for virgin hydrostatic compression.

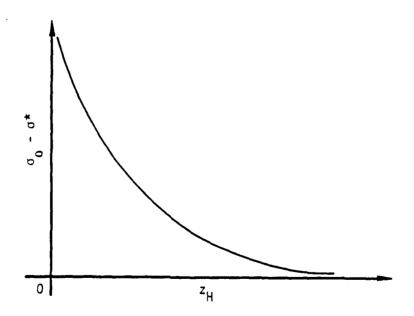


Figure 6. General form of the relationship between $\sigma_{\rm O}\text{-}\sigma\text{=}$ and $z_{\rm H}$

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Hence

$$z_{H} = \frac{1}{\beta} \log(1 + \beta \epsilon^{p}) \tag{3.11}$$

OF

$$\epsilon^{\mathsf{p}} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left[e^{\beta \mathsf{z}_{\mathsf{H}}} - 1 \right] \tag{3.12}$$

Thus

$$F_{H} = e^{\beta z_{H}} \tag{3.13}$$

Following, therefore, Eqs. (2.62) and (3.7)

$$\sigma = \sum_{r} \int_{0}^{z_{H}} K_{r} e^{-\lambda_{r} \left(z_{H}^{-z'}\right)} e^{\beta z'} dz'$$
(3.14)

or

$$\sigma = \sum_{r} K_{r} e^{-\lambda_{r} z} H \left[\frac{1}{\lambda_{r} + \beta} \right] \left[e^{\left(\lambda_{r} + \beta\right) z} H_{-1} \right]$$
 (3.15)

Thus, if we define a stress $\sigma*$ such that

$$\sigma * = \frac{\sigma}{F_H} = \frac{\sigma}{1 + \beta \epsilon^p} , \qquad (3.16)$$

it follows from Eq. (3.15) that

$$\sigma * = \sum_{r} \frac{K_{r}}{\beta + \lambda_{r}} \left[1 - e^{-(\beta + \lambda_{r})z_{H}} \right]$$
 (3.17)

3.1.2 Determination of the Constants K_r , λ_r and β .

To determine these constants we proceed as follows. The constant β is found from the straight line portion of the hydrostat given by the relation

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \left(1 + \beta \epsilon^{p} \right) \tag{3.18}$$

where σ_0 is the intercept shown in Figure 5.

The remaining constants are found by plotting σ_0 - $\sigma*$ versus z_H where z_H is given by Eq. (3.11). The plot is shown in Figure 6. It follows by virtue of Eq. (3.17) that

$$\sigma_0 - \sigma^* = \sum_{r} \frac{K_r}{\beta + \lambda_r} e^{-(\beta - \lambda_r)z_H}$$
(3.19)

Hence a Prony series representation of the curve σ_0 - σ_* versus z_H gives $K_r/(\beta + \lambda_r)$ and $\beta + \lambda_r$. Since β is already known, K_r and λ_r are thus also known.

3.2 SHEAR RESPONSE.

The deviatoric part of the stress tensor (the shear response) is given by Eq. (2.65). Specifically

where

$$dz^{2} = \left| \left| d\underline{e}^{p} \right| \right|^{2} + k^{2} \left(d\epsilon^{p} \right)^{2}$$
 (3.21a)

and

$$dz_s = \frac{dz}{F_s} \tag{3.21b}$$

in accordance with Eqs. (2.42) and (2.54). Thus two material functions, $\rho(z_s)$ and F_s and the constant k are sufficient to determine the shear stress from the plastic strain history. It has been found experimentally that the failure stress of concrete in the π -plane depends on the prevailing hydrostatic stress and the direction of loading in the π -plane. To account for these two effects it is necessary that F_s depend on σ and the Lode angle θ . Thus we set

$$F_{s} = F_{s}(\sigma, \theta) \tag{3.22}$$

subject to the normalization condition $F_s(0,0) = 1$.

3.2.1 The Kernel $\rho(z_s)$.

The form of the function $\rho(z_s)$ is found most conveniently by means of a pure shear test in the absence of hydrostatic stress. In this case

$$\sigma$$
 = 0, θ = 0, ϵ^{p} = 0, F_{s} = 1

If the non-vanishing stress component is τ and the corresponding plastic strain component is γ^p , then in view of Eq. (3.21) we can write

$$dz = \sqrt{2} |d\gamma^{p}|$$

$$dz_{s} = dz$$
(3.23)

Thus using Eq. (3.20)

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} M \left(\sqrt{2} \gamma^{p} \right) \tag{3.24}$$

where

$$M(x) = \begin{cases} x \\ \rho(z') dz' \end{cases}$$
 (3.25)

for all finite x. Thus

$$\frac{d(\sqrt{2}\tau)}{d(\sqrt{2}\gamma^{p})} = \frac{d\tau}{d\gamma^{p}} = \rho(\sqrt{2}\gamma^{p}) \tag{3.26}$$

Thus, if one plots $\sqrt{2}\tau$ versus $\sqrt{2}\gamma^p$, the slope of the curve is the kernel function $\rho(x)$ where $x=\sqrt{2}\gamma^p$.

3.2.2 The Function F_s .

The determination of the form of F_s and the value of k is more complex due to the strong coupling between the hydrostatic and deviatoric responses brought about by the presence of k in Eq. (3.21).

Consider for instance a shear stress field in the presence of a constant hydrostatic stress. More precisely a hydrostatic stress field is applied until $\sigma=\sigma_1$, whereupon σ is held constant at σ_1 and a shear stress field τ is then applied, so that while τ is being applied the total stress field is of the form

$$\mathfrak{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.27)

One first notes that the application of shear stress changes the hydrostatic plastic strain by virtue of Eq. (3.2). To see this we invert Eq. (3.2) i.e., express $\epsilon^{\mathbf{p}}$ in terms of the history of σ .

$$\epsilon^{P} = \begin{cases} z_{H} \\ L(z_{H} - z_{H}) \frac{d\sigma}{dz_{H}} dz_{H} \end{cases}$$
 (3.28)

where L is related to ϕ by the integral equation

$$\int_{0}^{z} \phi(z - z') \frac{dL'}{dz'} dz' = H(z)$$
(3.29)

where H(z) is the Heaviside step function. Let $z_H = z_H^o$ at the termination of the hydrostatic test, i.e., at $\sigma = \sigma_1$. Then in view of Eq. (3.28)

$$\epsilon^{P} = \begin{cases} z_{H}^{o} \\ L(z_{H} - z_{H}) \frac{d\sigma}{dz_{H}} dz_{H} \end{cases}$$
 (3.30)

since $\frac{d\sigma}{dz_H} = 0$ when $z_H > z_H^0$.

Since the application of shear stress will cause a change in the shear strain, z will change by virtue of Eq. (3.21), and so will z_H by virtue of Eq. (2.54). Thus the integral on the righthand side of Eq. (3.30) will change and hence so will ϵ^p . Thus, in the presence of hydrostatic stress, dz is no longer given by Eq. (3.23) but by Eq. (3.21), which is influenced by the value of k.

The problem simplifies somewhat and becomes amenable to analysis if one adopts a simpler form of the hydrostat. With reference to Eq. (3.2), the kernel $\phi(z_H)$ decays with sufficient rapidity to be approximated by a Direc δ function. Thus we set

$$\phi(z_{H}) = K_{O}\delta(z_{H}) \tag{3.31}$$

in which case by virtue of Eq. (3.2), it follows that

$$\sigma = K_0 \frac{d\epsilon^p}{dz_H} \tag{3.32}$$

Specifically under purely hydrostatic monotonic loading conditions Eq. (3.3) applies in which case

$$\sigma = K_0 \left(1 + \beta \epsilon^p \right) \tag{3.33}$$

by virtue of Eqs. (3.9) and (2.43). Equation (3.33) is then basically that of a plastic linearly hardening model. In particular if σ_1 is on the linear part of the hydrostatic stress-strain curve, Eqs. (3.33) is certainly adequate.

It follows from Eqs. (3.32) that

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$$d\epsilon^{p} = \frac{\sigma_{1}}{K_{o}} dz_{H}$$
 (3.34)

where σ_1 is the (constant) value of the hydrostatic stress during shearing.

Adopting the sign convention commonly used in civil engineering whereby σ and ϵ^p are positive when compressive, we note, in view of Eq. (3.34), that $d\epsilon^p$ will be positive, and hence the compressive strain will increase, during shearing.

In view of the above observations we introduce the following notation

$$d\zeta_s = \left| \left| de^p \right| \right|$$
, $d\zeta_H = \left| d\epsilon^p \right|$ (3.35a.b)

Thus, because of Eq. (2.43),

$$dz^2 = d\varsigma_s^2 + k^2 d\varsigma_H^2$$
 (3.36)

We now combine Eqs. (2.54) and (3.32) to obtain

$$\sigma = kK_0(1 + \beta z_H) \frac{dS_H}{dz}$$
 (3.37)

where use was made of Eq. (3.33), (3.35b) and the fact that during the hydrostatic as well as the shearing processes $d\epsilon^p > 0$. Equations (3.36) and (3.37) combine to give the result

$$dz \left\{ 1 - \left[\frac{\sigma_1}{K_0 (1 + \beta \zeta_H)} \right]^2 \right\}^{1/2} = d\zeta_s$$
 (3.38)

Now let $S\hat{H}(=\epsilon^p)$ be the value of ϵ^p at the completion of the purely hydrostatic loading so that

$$S_{H} = S_{H}^{\prime} + S_{H}^{S} \tag{3.39}$$

where ζ_H^S is the hydrostatic strain induced by shear loading at constant pressure. Also let

$$z = z' + y \tag{3.40}$$

where z' is the value of z at the completion of the purely hydrostatic loading. Without going into extensive analytical detail Eqs. (3.36), (3.37) and (3.38) combine to give the following results:

$$\frac{dS_s}{dy} = \left(\frac{2ay}{1+2ay}\right)^{1/2} \tag{3.41}$$

where

$$a = \frac{K_0 \beta}{k \sigma_1} \quad , \tag{3.42}$$

and

$$S_s = \frac{1}{2a} \left\{ x \sqrt{x^2 - 1} - \log \left(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \right) \right\}$$
 (3.43)

where

$$x = 1 + \frac{K_0 \beta}{\sigma_1} S_H^s$$
 (3.44)

Relations (3.41) and (3.43) will prove useful in determining the form of $F_{\rm S}$ and the value of k.

We now return to the question of the shear stress response to increasing shear strain in the presence of constant pressure, i.e., to the case where the stress field is given by Eq. (3.27). In view of Eq. (3.20), we can write

$$\tau = \begin{cases} z_{s} & -z_{s} \frac{d\gamma^{p}}{dz_{s}} dz_{s} \end{cases}$$
 (3.45)

However, $\gamma^{\rm p}=0$ during pure hydrostatic loading, i.e., in the range $0 \le z_{\rm s} \le z_{\rm s}'$. Thus, if we set $w=z_{\rm s}-z_{\rm s}'$ and recall Eq. (3.45), it follows that

$$\tau = \int_{0}^{w} \rho(w - w') \frac{d\gamma^{p}}{dw'} dw' \qquad (3.45a)$$

We note that

$$\frac{d\gamma^{p}}{dw} = \frac{d\gamma^{p}}{d\zeta_{s}} \frac{d\zeta_{s}}{dw} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{d\zeta_{s}}{dw}$$
 (3.46)

in view of Eq. (3.35a). Therefore, as a result of Eqs. (3.21b) and (3.41)

$$\frac{d\zeta_s}{dw} = F_s \left(\frac{2aF_s w}{1 + 2aF_s w} \right)^{1/2}$$
(3.47)

where in this case

$$F_{s} = F_{s}(\sigma, 0) \tag{3.48}$$

i.e., $\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{S}}$ is constant during the shearing process.

Thus as a result of Eqs. (3.45a), (3.46) and (3.47)

$$\tau = \frac{F_s}{\sqrt{2}} \int_0^w \rho(w - w') \left(\frac{2aF_s w}{1 + 2aFw} \right)^{1/2} dw'$$
 (3.49)

It is shown in Appendix I that

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \int_{0}^{w} \rho(z - z') \left(\frac{2aF_{s}z'}{1 + 2aF_{s}z'} \right)^{1/2} dz' = M_{\infty}$$
 (3.50)

where M(z) is given by Eq. (3.25) and $M_{\infty} = M(\infty)$ (∞ . Hence, denoting the asymptotic value of the shear stress by τ_{∞} it follows from Eqs. (3.49) and (3.50) that

$$\tau_{\infty} = \frac{F_{s}}{\sqrt{2}} M_{\infty} \tag{3.51}$$

During shearing at zero pressure one may set $F_s = 1$. Thus

$$\frac{\tau_{\infty}(\sigma_1)}{\tau_{\infty}(0)} = F_{s} \tag{3.52}$$

Equation (3.52) determines the form of F_s under constant θ . Keeping σ constant and performing shearing tests each at a different value of θ one is able to determine the form of functional dependence of F_s on θ .

3.2.3 Determination of the Kernel $\rho(w)$ in the Presence of Pressure.

In the course of the development of the theory in conjunction with the experimental data of Scavuzzo, et at. (17) it transpired that

all shear experiments were performed in the presence of pressure i.e., under conditions where $\sigma_1 \neq 0$. In this event Eq. (3.24) no longer applies and Eq. (3.49) must be used for the determination of $\rho(w)$. To this end we set $F_S=1$ at a reference pressure σ_R , which is the one we use in the determination of $\rho(w)$, and which must lie on the straight line segment of the hydrostat to ensure that Eq. (3.49) is applicable. Thus setting $F_S=1$ in Eq. (3.49) we obtain the following relation for τ :

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{0}^{y} \rho(y - y') \left(\frac{2ay'}{1 + 2ay'} \right)^{1/2} dy'$$
 (3.53)

where as before

$$a = \frac{K_o \beta}{K \sigma_R} \tag{3.54}$$

and since y = w when $F_s = 1$.

Thus given τ (which is measured experimentally) and a, the task at hand is to solve the integral equation (3.53) and thus obtain the functional form of ρ .

Before we proceed with the solution we take care to note that τ is measured as a function of the shear strain γ and is therefore reducible to a function of the plastic strain γ^p . In the presence of monotonic shearing conditions and in view of Eq. (3.35a)

$$d\varsigma_{\epsilon} = \sqrt{2} d\gamma^{p} \tag{3.55}$$

Furthermore, since at the initiation of the shear test $\zeta_S=0$, it follows that

$$S_{e} = \sqrt{2} \gamma^{p} \tag{3.56}$$

Thus in view of the relation between ζ_s and y (Eq. 3.44), ζ_s can be expressed as a function of y. Thus the function on the lefthand side of Eq. (3.53) is a known function of y.

3.2.4 Numerical Procedure for Determining the Kernel Function $\rho(z_s)$.

We proceed to give a numerical solution to the equation

$$\tau(y) = \begin{cases} y \\ 0 \end{cases} \rho(y - y') g(y') dy'$$
 (3.57)

where the object is to determine $\rho(y)$ given the functions $\tau(y)$ and g(y). Note that Eq. (3.53) is a particular case of Eq. (3.57) where

$$g(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{2ay}{1 + 2ay} \right)^{1/2}$$
 (3.58)

Let y_n be a generic value of the variable y. We divide the interval [0,y] into suitably small equal subintervals Δ such that

$$y_n = n\Delta \tag{3.59}$$

The integral on the righthand side of Eq. (3.57) can then be written in the form

$$\tau(y_n) = \tau_n = \begin{cases} \frac{\Delta}{\rho} (y_n - y') g(y') dy' + \dots \\ \frac{\Delta}{\rho} (y_n - y') g(y') dy' + \dots \end{cases}$$

$$(3.60)$$

$$(3.61)$$

or

$$\tau_{n} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} g_{r} \{ M[(n-r+1)\Delta] - M[(n-r)\Delta] \}$$
 (3.61)

where y virtue of the mean value theorem

$$g_r = g(y_r^*) , \qquad (3.62)$$

$$(r-1)\Delta \leq y_r^* \leq r\Delta \tag{3.63}$$

and

$$M(r\Delta) = \begin{cases} r\Delta \\ \rho(y')dy' \end{cases}$$
 (3.64)

The quantity g_r may be determined to the required degree of accuracy by making the interval Δ sufficiently small.

In consequence, we have the relations

$$\tau_1 = \Delta g_1 M(\Delta)$$

$$\tau_2 = \Delta g_1 M(2\Delta) + \Delta g_2 M(\Delta)$$
(3.65)

$$\tau_n = \Delta g_1 M(n\Delta) + \Delta g_2 M[(n-1)\Delta] + ... + \Delta g M(\Delta)$$

where

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$$\Delta g_r = g_r - g_{r-1}$$
 (3.66)

This is a system of a linear simultaneous equations in $M(\Delta)$, $M(2\Delta)$... $M(n\Delta)$. Since the Δg_r are known, then knowing τ_1 , τ_2 ... τ_n allows one to determine $M(r\Delta)$, r=1,2 ... n, by successive substitution. The following algorithm applies:

If

$$\bar{\tau}_{n} = \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} \Delta g_{n+1-m} M(m\Delta)$$
 (3.67)

then

$$M(r\Delta) = \frac{\tau_n - \overline{\tau}_n}{\Delta g_1}$$
 (3.68)

Knowledge of M(y) thus allows the determination of $\rho(y)$ since

$$\rho(y) = \frac{dM(y)}{dy} \tag{3.69}$$

SECTION 4 EVALUATION OF MODEL PARAMETERS FROM PLAIN CONCRETE DATA

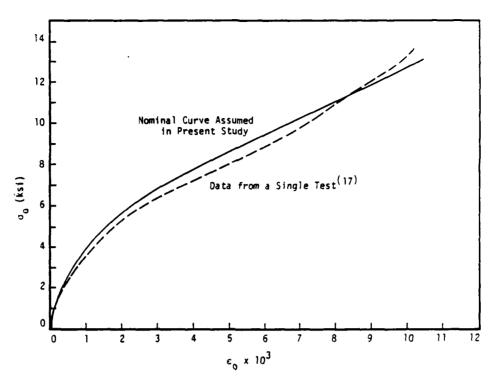
In the preceding section, a specific form of the general endochronic model described in Section 2 was given for plain concrete, and a basic approach was given for determining the material constants in the model from experimental data. In this section, the model is applied specifically to the data on plain concrete recently reported by Scavuzzo, et al. (17) The model is first fit to a small subset of the data, and the resulting model is then proof-tested against the data from a wide variety of the complex strain path tests not used in fitting the model. The predictive capabilities of the model are demonstrated.

4.1 DETERMINATION OF MODEL PARAMETERS.

Only a small subset of the data reported by Scavuzzo, et al. (17) is needed to determine the values of the model parameters; for this purpose, pure hydrostatic compression data, data on the response to shear at several different fixed hydrostatic pressures and triaxial failure data at various confining pressures proves sufficient. Details of the manner in which this can be accomplished are given below.

4.1.1 Hydrostatic Parameters.

The most extensive virgin pure hydrostatic compression curve reported by Scavuzzo, et al. (17) is depicted by the dotted line in Figure 7, covering the range of pressures up to nearly 14 ksi. Shown also in Figure 7 by the solid line is the virgin hydrostatic compression curve actually used in determining the model parameters.



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Figure 7. Octahedral normal stress versus octahedral normal strain for virgin hydrostatic compression.

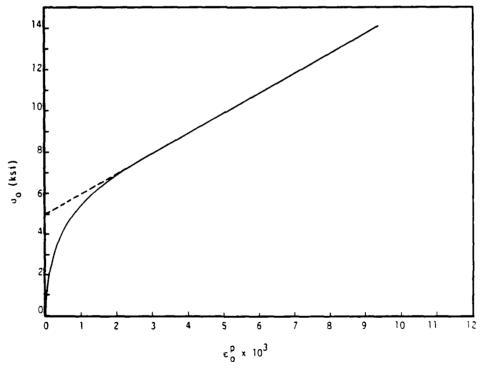


Figure 8. Octahedral normal stress versus plastic octahedral normal strain for virgin hydrostatic compression.

An examination of the virgin pure hydrostatic compression legs of many of the complex strain path tests revealed that the dotted curve in Figure 7 was probably too soft. Therefore, from this examination, the curve shown by the solid line was constructed and appears to provide a more accurate portrayal of the normal virgin hydrostatic behavior; the linearization of the upper portion of the hydrostatic curve was felt to be justified in view of the fact that none of the complex stress path tests reported by Scavuzzo, et al. exceeded hydrostatic pressures of 12 ksi. Note that the curves shown in Figure 7 are expressed in terms of octahedral normal stress $\sigma_{\rm o}$ versus octahedral normal strain $\epsilon_{\rm o}$. Since $\sigma_{\rm o} = 1/3\sigma_{i\,i}$ and $\epsilon_{\rm o} = 1/3\epsilon_{i\,i}$, the mean stress (pressure) $\sigma_{\rm o}$ is synonymous with $\sigma_{\rm o}$, and the volumetric strain ϵ is equal to 3 $\epsilon_{\rm o}$.

Based on the curves given in Figure 7, and in agreement with Stankowski and Gerstle, (18) the bulk modulus K was assigned the value

$$K = 2.1 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}$$
 (4.1)

Using the solid curve in Figure 7, together with the expression

$$\epsilon^{\mathsf{p}} = \epsilon - \frac{\sigma}{\mathsf{K}} \quad ,$$
(4.2)

and the value of K given by Eq. (4.10), a curve of σ versus ϵ^p was obtained which is shown in Figure 8. From the straight line portion of this figure, one finds by recalling Eq. (3.18) given earlier that

$$\beta = 64.8$$

$$\sigma_0 = 5 \text{ ksi}$$
(4.3)

Using these values of β and σ_0 , a plot was made of σ_0 - σ^* versus z_H , using the curve from Figure 8, and the definitions of σ^* and z_H given earlier by Eqs. (3.11) and (3.16), respectively. Six points, at equally spaced values of z_H , were chosen from this plot, and a two-term series of decaying exponentials of the form

$$\sigma_{o} - \sigma_{*} = \sum_{r=1}^{2} C_{r} e^{-\beta_{r} z_{H}}$$
 (4.4)

was fit to these points by Prony's method. This led to the following values of C_r and β_r :

$$C_1 = 2.434 \text{ ksi}$$
 , $\beta_1 = 635$ (4.5) $C_2 = 2.566 \text{ ksi}$, $\beta_2 = 2,289$

A plot of Eq. (4.4), based on the constants given by Eq. (4.5), is shown in Figure 9, where the six points to which Eq. (4.4) was fit are also shown.

By comparing Eqs. (4.4) and (3.19), it then follows that

$$C_{r} = \frac{K_{r}}{\beta + \lambda_{r}}$$

$$\beta_{r} = \beta + \lambda_{r}$$
(4.6)

from which we find

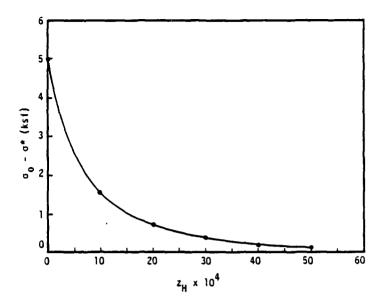


Figure 9. Representation of the σ_0 - $\sigma*$ versus z_H relationship by a two-term series of decaying exponentials. The solid circles are the equally-spaced points to which the series was fit.

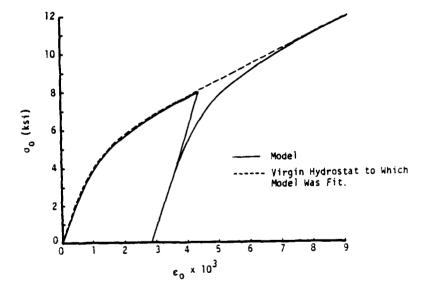


Figure 10. Octahedral normal stress versus octahedral normal strain for pure hydrostatic compression, including unloading and reloading.

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$$K_1 = 1.55 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}, \lambda_1 = 570$$
 (4.7)
 $K_2 = 5.87 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}, \lambda_2 = 2,224$,

since β is known for Eq. (4.3). Therefore, Eq. (3.14), with the above values of the constants, completely defines the hydrostatic behavior of the model. An example of the hydrostatic behavior predicted by this model, including unloading and reloading response, is given in Figure 10. Comparison of this figure with the solid curve in Figure 7 shows that the model portrays the hydrostatic behavior quite well.

4.1.2 Shear Parameters.

As noted earlier in Section 3.2, the most convenient and direct way of determining the shear parameters is from data on shear response under zero hydrostatic pressure. Unfortunately, Scavuzzo, et al. (17) did not investigate this case in their extensive study. They did, however, investigate shear behavior under several different fixed hydrostatic pressures in Tests 4-9 to 4-11; the resulting data will be used to determine the shear parameters and the shear-volumetric coupling parameters in this section.

A composite of the results for those portions of Tests 4-9 to 4-11 which consisted of shear at constant hydrostatic pressure is given in Figure 11. An inspection of this figure reveals some apparent discrepancies in the data. From the general characteristics of plain concrete reported in the literature, the initial slope at the onset of shear generally increases with confining pressure, and the shear stress-shear strain curves can be expected to fall above each other --

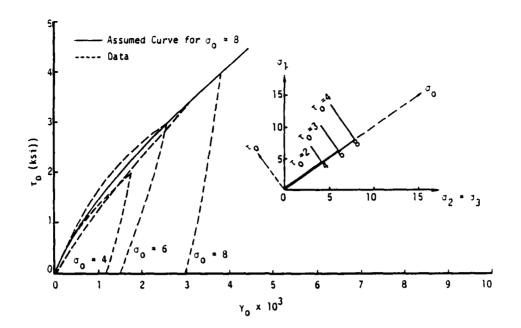


Figure 11. Octahedral shear stress versus octahedral shear strain for Tests 4-9 to 4-11.

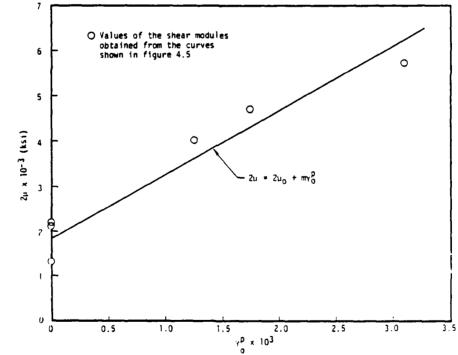


Figure 12. Dependence of shear modulus on octahedral shear stress.

not intersect -- as the confining pressure increases. Tests 4-9 and 4-10 follow the expected pattern, but Test 4-11, despite being at the highest confining pressure (8 ksi), does not; it has the smallest initial slope and exhibits softer response than Test 4-10. There is undoubtedly scatter in these data but since the tests were not repeated, the magnitude of the data scatter is unknown.

In Section 3.2, an approach for determining the shear parameters from shear data at constant hydrostatic pressures was described, which required the use of shear data obtained at fixed hydrostatic pressures that lay on the linear portion of the hydrostat. While the test conditions for Test 4-11 meet this requirement, i.e., shear at σ_0 = 8 ksi, the data are somewhat suspect, as noted above. In view of this, we used our best judgement to construct a curve which we felt provided a more realistic description of the response of plain concrete to shear at σ_0 = 8 ksi, and this curve is shown by the solid line in Figure 11. The reference pressure σ_R was therefore set at 8 ksi, and the shear parameters determined from the solid curve in Figure 11.

The shear modulus, 2μ , and its variation with deformation was also determined directly from the curves shown in Figure 11. The shear moduli were obtained from the initial slopes of the loading curves, as well as from the slopes of the initial portions of the unloading curves. Attempts were made to correlate the resulting values of 2μ against the plastic volumetric strain, the total volumetric strain, the octahedral shear strain and the plastic octahedral shear strain. The total volumetric strain and the plastic volmetric strain provided poor correlation, while the octahedral shear strain and the plastic octahedral shear strain led to reasonably good correlations. Adopting the plastic octahedral shear strain, a linear fit to the data points in Figure 12 led to the following expression for 2μ :

$$2\mu = 2\mu_{o} + m \gamma_{o}^{p} \tag{4.8}$$

in which $2\mu_0 = 1.83 \times 10^3$ ksi and m = 1.42 x 10^6 ksi.

By using Eq. (4.8), the following incremental expression for the plastic octahedral shear strain $\gamma_{o}^{\rm p}$

$$d\gamma_o^p = d\gamma_o - \frac{d\tau_o}{2\mu} , \qquad (4.9)$$

and the solid curve in Figure 11, the dependence of $\tau_{\rm O}$ on $\gamma_{\rm O}^{\rm p}$ at the reference pressure $\sigma_{\rm R}$ = 8 ksi was determined, and the result is depicted in Figure 13.

At this point, it becomes necessary to determine the shear-volumetric coupling coefficient k and, for this purpose, we consider Figure 14, which shows the manner in which the octahedral normal strain ϵ_0 varies with the octahedral shear stress τ_0 during shear at several different constant hydrostatic pressures. In the absence of contrary information, it will be assumed that volumetric changes which take place during shear at constant pressure are completely irreversible. On this basis, and using the results for $\sigma_0=8$ ksi depicted in Figures 13 and 14, a plot of the plastic volumetric strain ϵ^p versus the plastic octahedral shear strain γ_0^p was generated, and this is shown in Figure 15.

The model provides a theoretical expression for the dependence of ϵ^p on γ^p_0 through Eq. (3.43), given earlier, if we note that

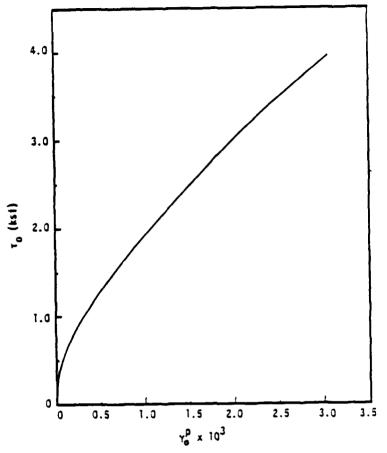


Figure 13. Dependence of the octahedral shear stress $\tau_{\rm o}$ on the plastic octahedral shear strain for a fixed hydrostatic pressure of 8 ksi.

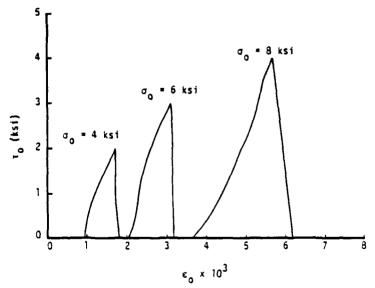


Figure 14. Dependence of the octahedral normal strain ϵ_0 on the octahedral shear stress τ_0 for several different values of constant hydrostatic pressure. Data are from Tests 4-9 t 4-11.

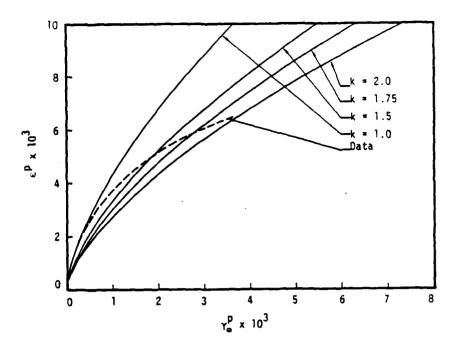


Figure 15. Shear-volumetric coupling at a constant hydrostatic pressure of 8 ksi. Data are from Test 4-11 in Reference 17.

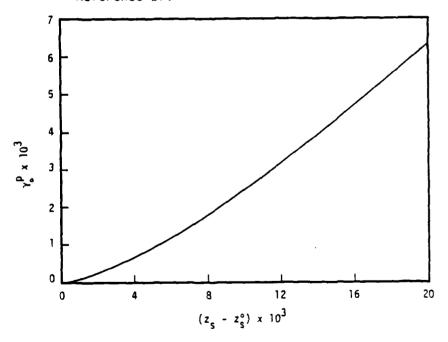


Figure 16. Dependence of $\gamma_0^{\rm p}$ on $z_{\rm s}$ - $z_{\rm s}^{\rm o}$ predicted by Eqs. (4.12) and (4.13) for shear at a constant pressure of 8 ksi.

$$\gamma_{o}^{p} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \varsigma_{s}$$

$$\epsilon^{p} = (x - 1)/(ak)$$
(4.10)

With these identifications, the dependence of ϵ^p on γ^p_0 is obtained for a specified value of k, since the constant a is known in terms of k through Eq. (3.42). In this manner, plots of ϵ^p versus γ^p_0 were generated with the aid of Eq. (3.43) for a range of assumed values for k, and the results are shown in Figure 15. From an inspection of this figure, the curve corresponding to k = 1.5 appears to provide the best overall description of the data; thus, we set

$$k = 1.5$$
 (4.11)

in the model.

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In Appendix C, the following expression is derived, relating ζ_S and z_S during shear at constant pressure, for the case in which σ is at the reference pressure σ_R and on the linear portion of the virgin hydrostat:

$$\varsigma_{s} = \frac{1}{2a} \left\{ \sqrt{2a} z_{s} \sqrt{1 + 2a} z_{s} - \log \left| \sqrt{2a} z_{s} - \sqrt{1 + 2a} z_{s} \right| \right\}$$
(4.12)

During shear at constant pressure, it can be shown that

$$\varsigma_{s} = \sqrt{3} \gamma_{o}^{p} \tag{4.13}$$

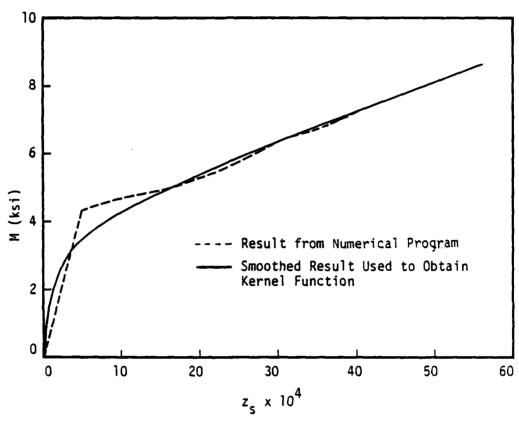
which, when combined with Eq. (4.12), provides a relationship between $\gamma_0^{\rm p}$ and $z_{\rm s}$ during shear at constant pressure for a prescribed value of a. Adopting the value of k given in Eq. (4.11), the value of the constant a is then known, and the resulting expression given by Eqs. (4.12) and (4.13) between $\gamma_0^{\rm p}$ and $z_{\rm s}$ is as shown in Figure 16. Using this result, and the relationship between τ_0 and $\gamma_0^{\rm p}$ given in Figure 13, the dependence of τ_0 on $z_{\rm s}$ during shear at constant pressure can be constructed. The numerical method described in Section 3.2 may now be utilized in conjunction with the τ_0 versus $z_{\rm s}$ relationship just found to give $M(z_{\rm s})$, where M is defined by Eq. (3.64). In this manner, the result shown in Figure 17 was obtained. Using this in conjunction with Eq. (3.69), the shear kernel function $\rho(z_{\rm s})$ can be found by differentiation of the $M(z_{\rm s})$ relationship. A two-term series of decay exponentials of the form

$$\rho(z_s) = \sum_{r=1}^{2} A_r e^{-\alpha_r z_s}$$
 (4.14)

was fit to the shear kernel by Prony's method; this led to the following values for the A_r and α_r :*

$$A_1 = 1.46 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}$$
 , $\alpha_1 = 100$ (4.15) $A_2 = 19.0 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}$, $\alpha_2 = 6,554$.

^{*.} Because the numerical inversion of Eq. (3.53) was only approximate (see Figure 17), the $\rho(z)$ so obtained was also approximate. As a result, an adjustment in the value of α , to that listed in Eq. (4.15) was made to provide a better description of the shear behavior.



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Figure 17. Dependence of M on $z_{\rm S}$ for shear at a fixed hydrostatic pressure of 8 ksi.

Finally, on the basis of the failure data given by Stankowski, $^{(30)}$ the following expression for the function F_s was adopted for use in the present study:

$$F_{s} = \frac{\tau * + \beta_{s} \sigma}{\tau * + \beta_{s} \sigma_{R}}$$
 (4.16a)

in which

$$\tau = 2 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\beta_{\text{S}} = 0.5 \tag{4.16b}$$

$$\sigma_{\text{R}} = 8 \text{ ksi} .$$

This completes the specification of the endochronic concrete model.

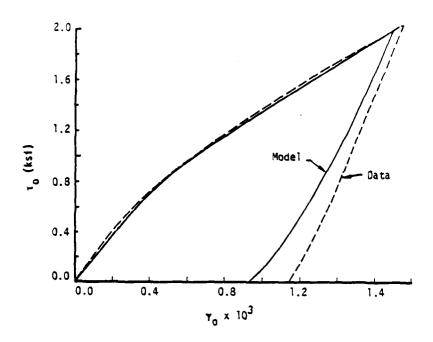
4.2 INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF MODEL, DATA AND FITTING PROCEDURE.

We return now to determine how well the plain concrete model just specified can describe the data to which it was fit, namely, the data from Tests 4-9 to 4-11 of Reference 17.* Such an exercise does not, of course, constitute a proof-test of the model, but simply provides a test of the internal consistency of the fitting procedure. It should be remembered that plain concrete data exhibits significant data scatter and, in comparing a model prediction against an indivi-

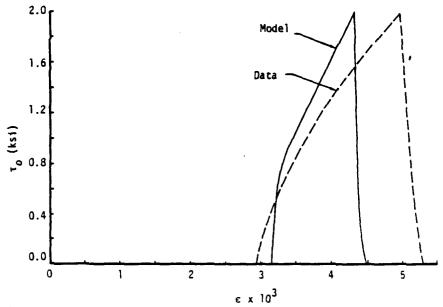
A comparison between the measured and predicted hydrostatic behavior was given earlier in Figure 15, and will not be repeated here.

dual test result, one cannot expect to obtain the same level of agreement as is found for example in metals. With plain concrete, one is looking more for a model that captures the overall, general characteristics of response.

To explore the ability of the model to describe the data from Tests 4-9 to 4-11, the model was driven around the appropriate prescribed stress paths for these tests, using a stress-driven computer program based upon the explicit incremental numerical scheme described in Appendix B. The results from these calculations are depicted in Figures 18 to 20. As an inspection of these figures reveals, the overall agreement between predictions and the data is quite good, considering the uncertainty in the data discussed earlier. The figures reveal that the main discrepancies lie in the unloading behavior, with the model showing noticeably more curvature of the unloading path -- and hence more hysteresis -- than the data. Although no effort was made in the present study to refine the model so that it would more closely describe the unloading behavior, such an improvement is straightforward and will be accomplished in a future study.



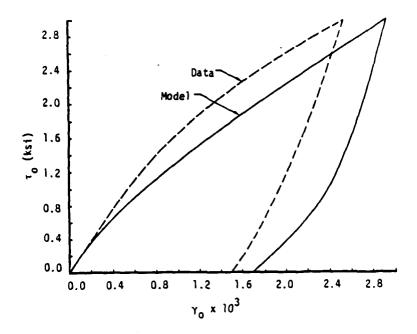
(a) Octahedral shear stress versus octahedral shear strain.



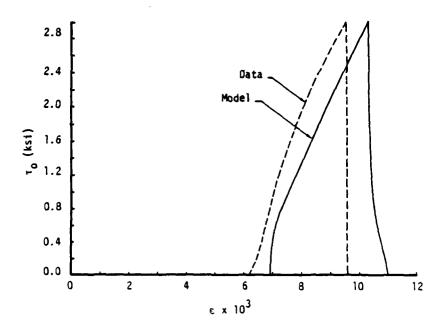
(b) Octrahedral shear stress versus volumetric strain.

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Figure 18. Measured and predicted responses to shear at a fixed hydrostatic pressure of 4 ksi (Test 4-9).

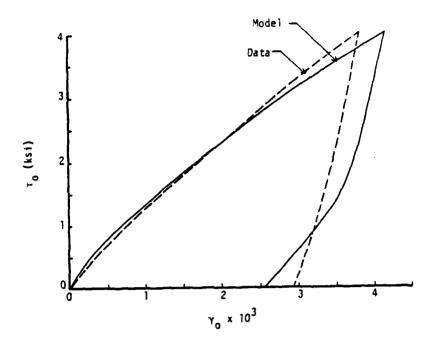


(a) Octahedral shear stress versus octahedral shear strain.



(b) Octahedral shear stress versus volumetric strain.

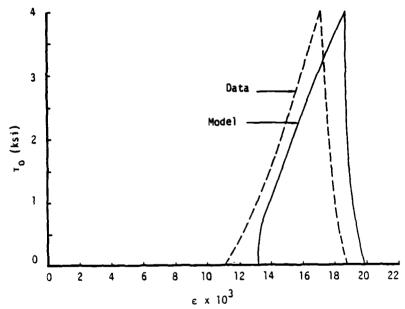
Figure 19. Measured and predicted responses to shear at a fixed hydrostatic pressure of 6 ksi. (Test 4-10).



(a) Octahedral shear stress versus octahedral shear strain.

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(b) Octahedral shear stress versus volumetric strain.

Figure 20. Measured and predicted responses to shear at a fixed hydrostatic pressure of 8 ksi (Test 4-11).

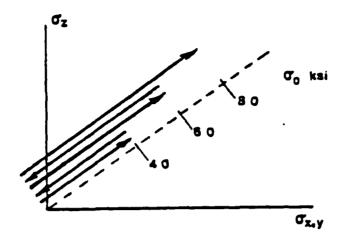
SECTION 5

PROOF-TESTS OF MODEL OVER COMPLEX STRESS PATHS

In the preceding section, the endochronic constitutive model developed in Section 3 was applied to the plain concrete data presented in Reference 17, with the model parameters evaluated from a small subset of the reported data. The ability of the resulting model to accurately portray the data to which it was fit was also described. The test program reported in Reference 17 consisted of six different series of stress-controlled tests, each series being designed to explore a particular facet of plain concrete behavior. In that which follows, the model is proof-tested by examining its capability to predict the measured response around a selected number of prescribed complex stress paths from this test series. None of the stress path tests considered in this section were used in fitting the model parameters, and no optimization techniques were employed to achieve the results presented below.

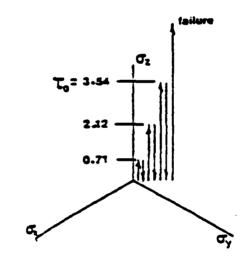
5.1 SERIES NO. 1.

This test series was designed to explore the response of plain concrete to triaxial load cycles which do not exhibit stress reversals. Each test was repeated once. The model was applied in the present study to Test 1-1 from this series, for which the prescribed load paths are shown in Figure 21. The loading consisted first of cyclic hydrostatic loading up to 8 ksi, as shown in Figure 21(a), followed by cyclic deviatoric loading along the triaxial compression path, as illustrated in Figure 21(b). The predicted and measured response for this loading history are given in Figure 22. As this figure reveals, the predicted and measured responses are in good agreement, considering the data scatter which can be assessed by



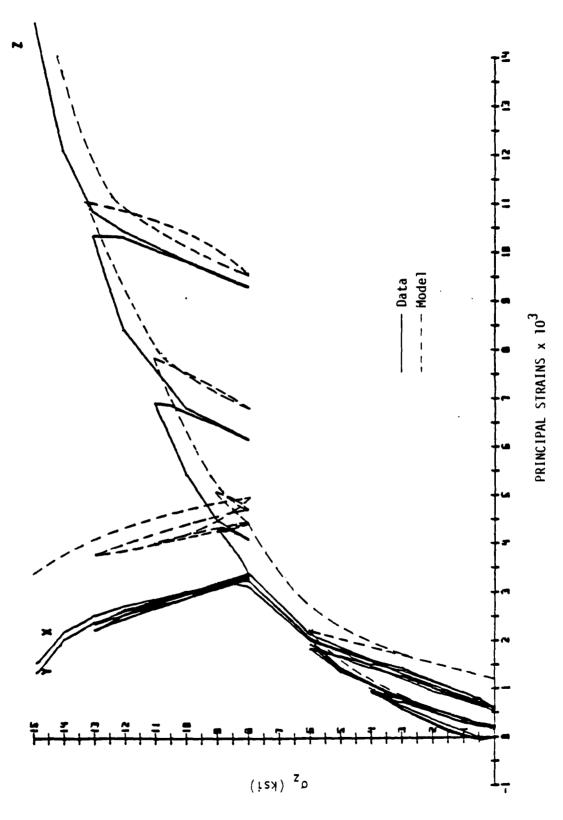
(a) Cyclic hydrostatic loading.

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(b) Cyclic deviatoric loading along the triaxial compression path.

Figure 21. Stress paths for Test 1-1.



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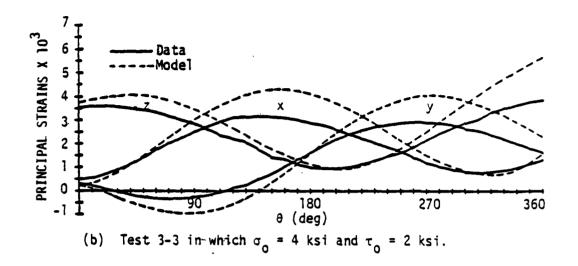
Figure 22. Predicted and measured response of plain concrete to Test 1-1.

comparing the results from Test 1-1 with those from the replicate test given in Reference 17, i.e., Test No. 1-10. If the data curve in Figure 22 was simply shifted to the right a small amount, the agreement would be excellent. Such a shift appears to be justified on the basis of the data scatter, since a comparison of the hydrostatic compression curves in Figures 7 and 22 reveals that the measured hydrostatic response in Figure 22 is stiffer than the data given in Figure 7 to which the model was fit. Aside from this difference, the qualitative features of the plain concrete behavior are obviously captured very well by the model.

5.2 SERIES NO. 3.

Test Series No. 3 was designed to examine the behavior of plain concrete to circular stress paths in the deviatoric plane. The stress paths consisted of monotonic hydrostatic loading, then proportional deviatoric loading along the triaxial compression path, and finally a circular load path in the deviatoric plane. In the present study, the load paths corresponding to Tests 3-3 and 3-4, as well as Tests 3-10, 3-11 and 3-12 were considered; Tests 3-3 and 3-4 had the same load path, as was also the case for Tests 3-10 to 3-12.

Figure 23 gives the responses predicted by the model to the circular stressed paths, as well as the corresponding data. Again, the overall agreement between predictions and measurements is considered good for plain concrete. If the data curve in Figure 23(b) were translated vertically upward by a sufficient amount, the results would show very good agreement. However, such a translation does not appear to be justified if one considers the data from Tests 3-10 and 3-11, which had load paths identical to Test 3-12. Thus, the model appears to be too soft during the proportional deviatoric leg of Test 3-12.



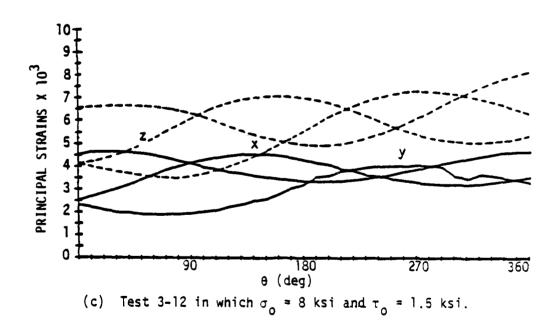


Figure 23. Response of plain concrete to circular stress paths in the deviatoric plane.

The results shown in Figure 23 are also of interest from another point of view. Recently, the new endochronic theory -- which forms the basis of the model developed herein -- was criticized by Bazant, Krizek and Shieh(29) as being unable to correctly describe the response of geomaterials, such as concrete, to what has been termed "loading-to-the-side". Without providing supporting experimental evidence, they claim that the model is unrealistic because it predicts purely elastic response for infinitesimal loading-to-the-side. To the authors' knowledge, no data are currently available for plain concrete which define its response to loading-to-the-side. Moreover, while the models' response to infinitesimal loading-to-the-side is purely elastic, its response to finite loading-to-the-side is inelastic. In Tests 3-3 and 3-12, the plain concrete was subjected to loading-tothe-side, at least at the beginning of the circular stress path and possibly when the path crossed the other two principal stress axes. In view of the reasonably good agreement between the data and the predictions for these paths, the criticisms by Bazant, et al. (29) appear to be premature and unjustified. For further elaboration on this point, see the discussion by Read. (34)

5.3 SERIES NO. 4.

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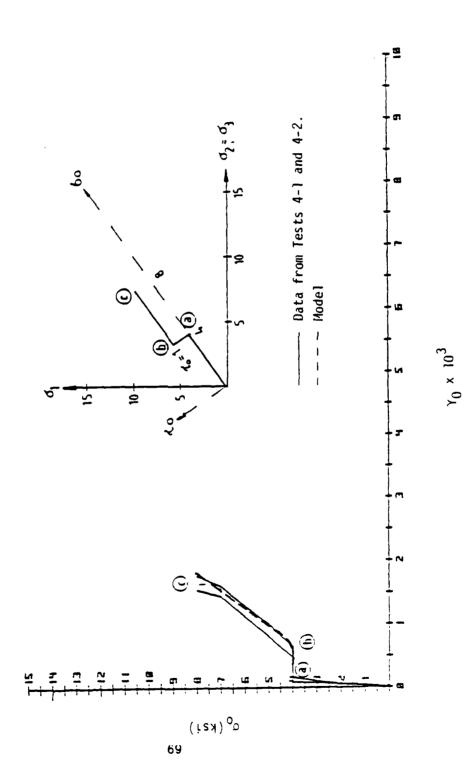
This series consisted of the largest number of tests, namely 22. In general, the tests were designed to explore several aspects of axisymmetric stress paths, i.e., paths for which at least two of the principal stresses were equal; this included (a) development of shear strain due to hydrostatic pressure increments in the presence of prior deviatoric stress, (b) dependence of response on stress path, and (c) behavior under nonproportional deviatoric stress paths. In that which follows, eight selected stress paths from Series No. 4 which

shed light on each of the above aspects of plain concrete behavior are considered.

Test 4-1 and its replicate, Test 4-2, provide insight into the development of shear strain during hydrostatic pressure increments in the presence of non-vanishing shear stress, i.e., shear-volumetric coupling. These tests followed the stress path described by the insert in Figure 24. This figure also shows the response to the prescribed stress path predicted by the present model, as well as the responses measured in the tests. The section of the path from (b) to (c) is of primary interest, since this is where the shear-volumetric coupling occurs under purely hydrostatic increments. As the results given in the figure indicate, the agreement between the model and the two sets of data is excellent.

Next, we consider Tests 4-9, 4-11, 4-13, 4-15, 4-16 and 4-17. This group of tests was designed to explore the effect, if any, of stress path dependence on plain concrete behavior. Except for Test 4-13, the remaining tests consist of stress paths that, while quite different from one another, nevertheless have at some point a common stress state, namely, $\sigma_{\rm O}$ = 8 ksi and $\tau_{\rm O}$ = 4 ksi. Thus, by comparing the strains measured at this stress state in the various tests allows an assessment of the magnitude of the stress path effect.

Table I summarizes the principal strains in the various tests that were measured in Reference 17 at the common stress state.



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Figure 24. Dependence of pressure σ on octahedral shear strain γ_0 for Tests 4-1 and 4-2.

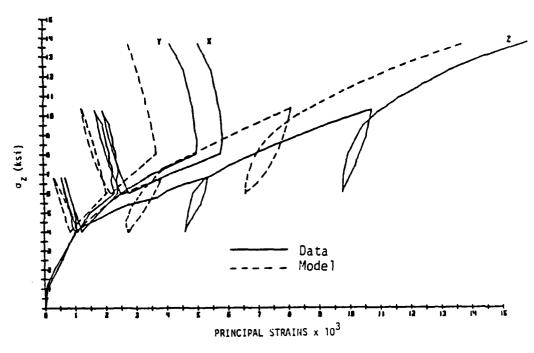
Table 1. Summary of the Principal Strains Measured at the Common Stress State of σ_{o} = 8 ksi and τ_{o} = 4 ksi.

Test Number	Principal Strains x 10 ³		
	€χ	ε _y	€ z
4-09	5.10	4.18	15.89
4-11	2.86	3.13	11.15
4-15	1.64	1.72	12.72
4-16	10.25	10.00	13.27
4-17	1.19	1.33	12.78

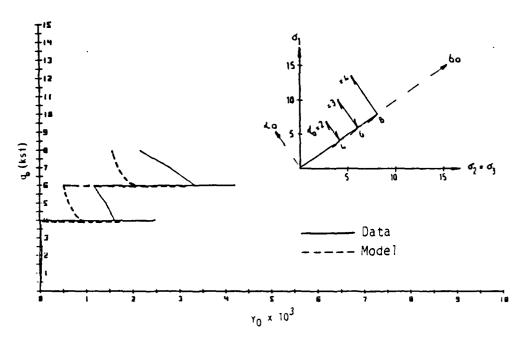
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As an inspection of this table reveals, there is substantial dependence of the deformation at the common stress state on the particular path taken to get to that state. The major principal strain, ϵ_z , varies from 11.15 x 10⁻³ to 15.89 x 10⁻³, while the other two strains show much greater variation, ranging from about 1 x 10⁻³ to 10 x 10⁻³.

The ability of the present model to describe the measured responses for Tests 4-9, 4-11, 4-13, 4-15, 4-16 and 4-17 is illustrated in Figures 25 to 32. Unfortunately, none of the tests in this group were repeated, so we have no insight into the level of data scatter. In view of the usual scatter found in concrete data, however, the agreement between the model predictions and the data is considered excellent; this agreement demonstrates the capability of the present model to account for the influence of the stress path on the resulting response.



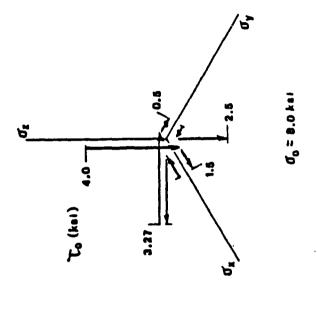
(a) Major principal stress versus principal strains.



(b) Octahedral normal stress versus octahedral shear strain.

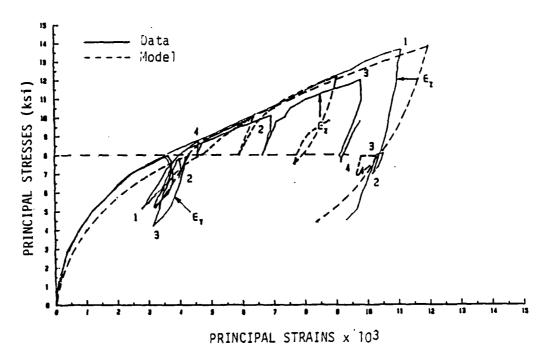
Figure 25. Measured and predicted responses for Test 4-9.

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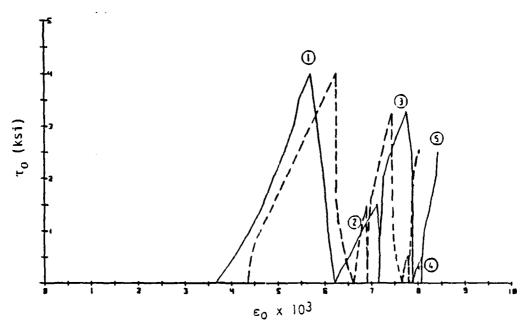


(b) Deviatoric plane.

(a) Rendulic plane.



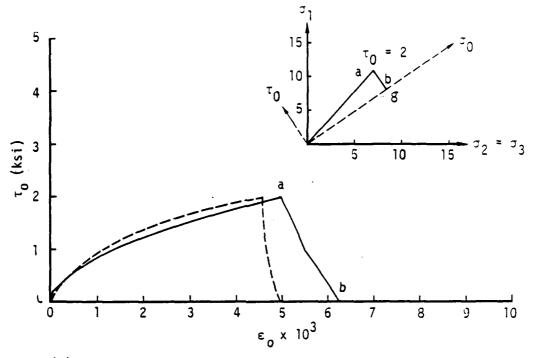
(a) Principal stresses versus principal strains.



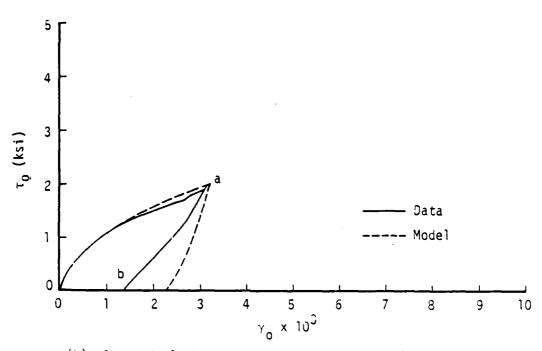
(b) Octahedral shear stress versus octahedral normal strain.

Figure 27. Measured and predicted responses for Test 4-11.

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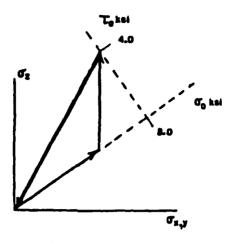


(a) Octahedral shear stress versus octahedral normal strain.

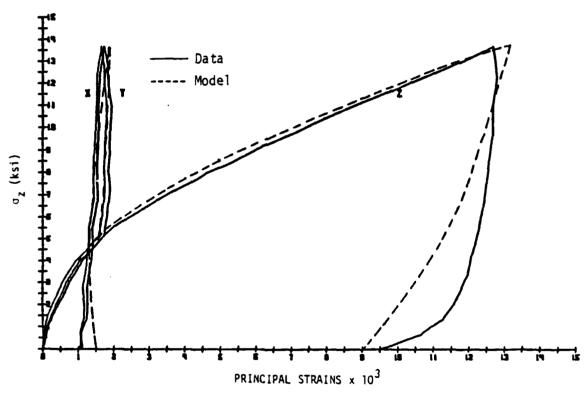


(b) Octanedral shear stress versus octahedral shear stress.

Figure 28. measured and predicted responses for Test 4-13.

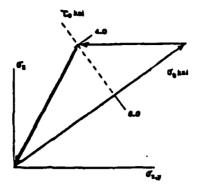


(a) Stress path.



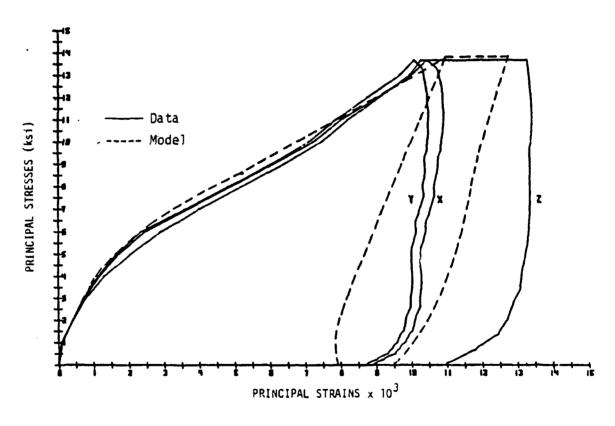
(b) Major principal stress versus principal strains.

Figure 29. Measured and predicted responses for Test 4-15.



(a) Stress path.

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(b) Principal stresses versus principal strains for Test 4-16.

Figure 30. Measured and predicted responses for Test 4-16.

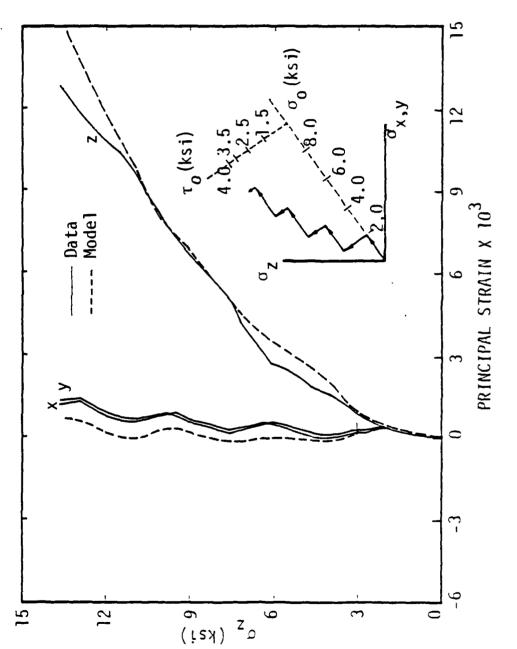
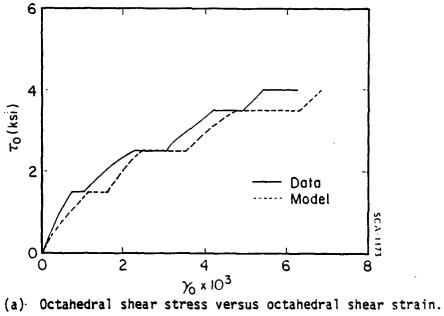
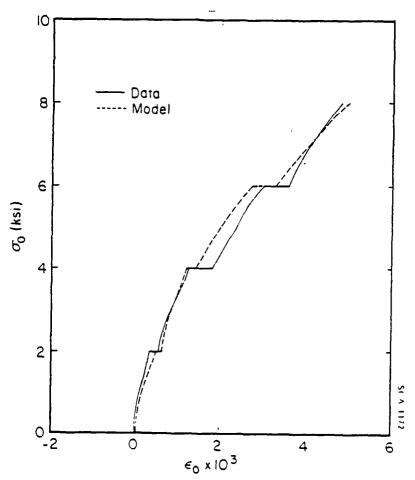


Figure 31. Major principal stress versus principal strains for Test 4-17.

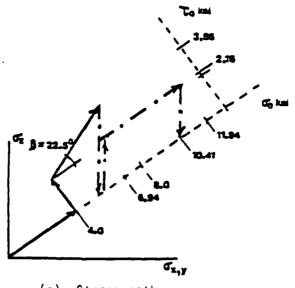
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(b) Octahedral normal stress versus octahedral normal strain.

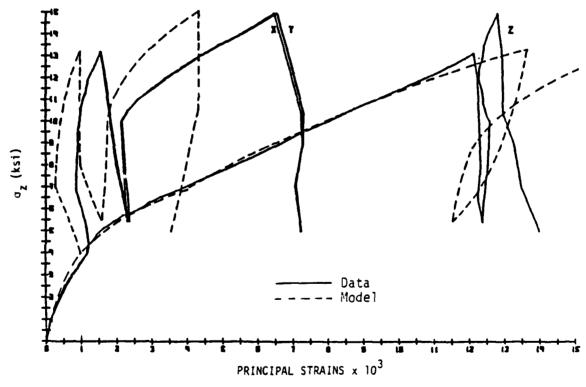
Figure 32. Measured and predicted responses for Test 4-17.



(a) Stress path.

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(b) Major principal stress versus principal strains.

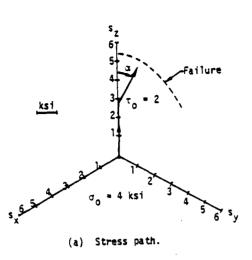
Figure 33. Measured and predicted responses for Test 4-20.

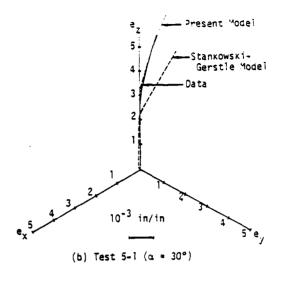
The final axisymmetric test to be considered here is Test 4-20. The prescribed stress path for this test consisted of nonproportional stress deviation, and is shown in Figure 33. The predicted response to this prescribed stress path, as well as the corresponding data, are also shown in Figure 33. Although some discrepancy between the model and the data is evident in the late stages of the stress history, the agreement during most of the stress history is excellent. Therefore, the overall agreement is considered good, considering the usual degree of scatter in concrete data; this test was also not repeated experimentally.

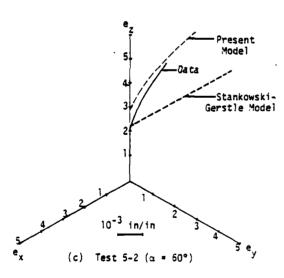
5.4 SERIES NO. 5.

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The purpose of the Series 5 tests was to investigate the response of plain concrete to unsymmetric stress paths in a given deviatoric plane. In the present study, attention was focussed on Tests 5-1 to 5-3 from this series, with emphasis on the behavior during the stress excursions in the deviatoric plane corresponding to $\sigma_0 = 4$ ksi. Details of the prescribed stress paths for these tests are depicted in Figure 34(a). The measured and predicted deviatoric strain paths, corresponding to those portions of the stress paths in the deviatoric plane for Tests 5-1 to 5-3, are shown in Figure 34. Also included in this figure for comparative purposes are corresponding predictions made by Stankowski, (30) using the Stankowski-Gerstle model. (18) From an inspection of this figure, one observes that the point on the $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{z}}$ axis at which the nonproportional portion of the path begins for the present model is consistently higher in all three tests than the data. It appears, therefore, that the model is too soft for proportional excursions from the hydrostatic axis out along the triaxial compression axis, confirming the same observation made earlier in conjunction with the circular stress paths in Series 3. Despite these small differences, however, Figure 34 shows that the present model does an excellent job of predicting







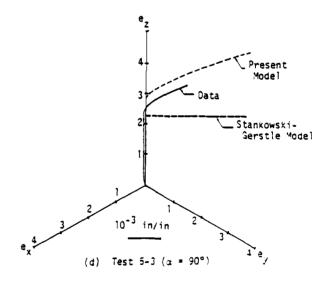


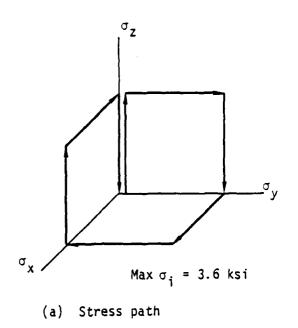
Figure 34. Stress paths for Tests 5-1 to 5-3.

measured responses in the deviatoric plane, and is clearly superior to the Stankowski-Gerstle model. (18)

5.5 SERIES NO. 6.

The tests in this series were designed to investigate the response of plain concrete to piecewise uniaxial load steps which formed closed loops. The loading was applied in a manner such that all possible uniaxial and equi-biaxial stress states of a given level were reached. Attention in the present study was focussed on Test 6-2, for which the prescribed stress history was as shown in Figure 35(a). The peak values of the principal stresses for this path were 3.6 ksi.

The response predicted by the present model to the prescribed stress path is illustrated in Figure 35(b), where the corresponding data are also given. Considering the typical scatter in concrete data, the agreement between the model prediction and the data is again considered excellent.



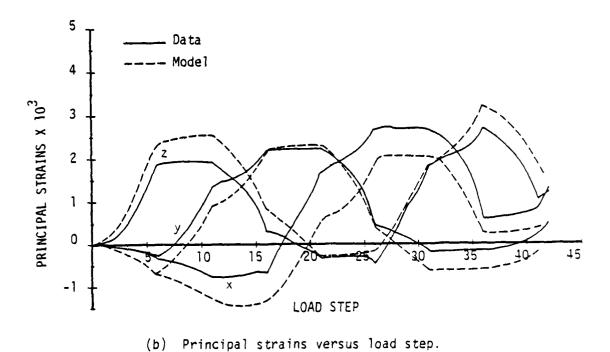


Figure 35. Measured and predicted responses for Test 6-2.

SECTION 6

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CONCLUSIONS

An advanced nonlinear constitutive model has been developed, on the basis of the new endochronic plasticity theory, to describe the general behavior of plain concrete over the range of stresses where significant cracking does not occur. The model is isotropic, rate-independent and thermodynamically sound. It satisfies Drucker's Stability Postulate, Prager's Continuity Condition and the Second Law. The model exhibits shear-volumetric coupling in the form of shear compaction, dependence of shear behavior on hydrostatic pressure, hysteresis and stress-path dependence. The wide variety of prooftests to which the model was subjected clearly demonstrate that, over the intended range of application, the present endochronic model provides an excellent description of the behavior of plain concrete.

Our future research activities will be devoted to extending the capabilities of the present model to a wider range of behavior; this will include focus on the following tasks:

- Modify the unloading-reloading shear behavior through the addition of shear hardening to more closely portray experimental data.
- Extend model to cover the range of behavior over which significant cracking occurs.
- Introduce strain-rate dependence.

Develop an optimal (computationally efficient)
 numerical scheme for treating the model in large
 finite element computer codes.

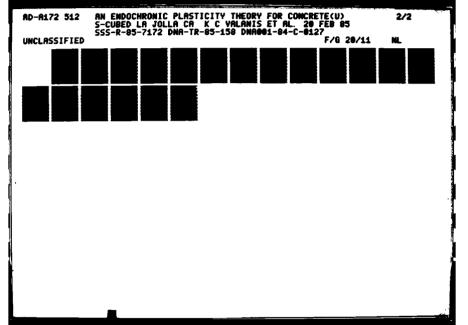
To meet these goals, appropriate and quality experimental data will be required, which may necessitate additional advancements in testing methods (35)

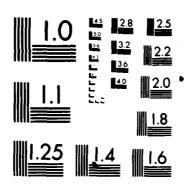
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APPENDIX A

A PROOF OF EQUATION (3.50)

The purpose of this appendix is to show that

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \int_{0}^{z} \rho(z - z') \left(\frac{cz'}{1 + cz'} \right)^{1/2} dz' = M_{\infty}$$
 (A.1)

where

c > 0,
$$M(z) = \begin{cases} z \\ \rho(z')dz' \end{cases}$$
 (A.2a,b)

and

$$M_{\infty} = M(\infty) < \infty \tag{A.3}$$

Here, $\rho(z)$ is a positive monotonically decreasing function of z in the domain $0 < z < \infty$ and

$$\lim_{z\to\infty} \rho(z) = 0 \tag{A.4a}$$

Therefore, M(z) is positive, monotonically increasing and convex in the sense that

$$M(z) - M(z - a) < a \left. \frac{dm}{dz} \right|_{z-a}$$
 (A.4b)

Thus in view of Eqs. (A.2b) and (A.4)

$$M(z) - M(z - a) \langle a\rho(z - a) \rangle \tag{A.4c}$$

It follows from Eqs. (A.4a) and (A.4c) that

$$\lim_{z\to\infty} \left\{ M(z) - M(z-a) \right\} = 0 \tag{A.5}$$

To prove the validity of Eq. (A.1) we first prove the following theorem.

Theorem: Let R(z) be a positive monotonically decreasing function bounded from above and below in the sense that

$$0 < R(z) \le R(o) \tag{A.6}$$

and

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} R(z) = 0 . \tag{A.7}$$

The operational definition of Eq. (A.7) is the following: Given an ϵ however small there exists a z $\langle \infty \rangle$ such that

$$R(z) < \epsilon$$
 (A.8a)

Then the following is true:

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \begin{cases} z \\ \rho(z - z')R(z')dz' = 0 \end{cases}$$
 (A.8b)

Proof:

The integral I on the lefthand side of Eq. (A.8b) may be written in the form

$$I = \int_{0}^{z_{o}} \rho(z - z')R(z')dz' + \int_{z_{o}}^{z} \rho(z - z')R(z')dz'$$
 (A.9)

where 0 $\langle z_0 \langle z$. Because of the properties of R(z), it follows that

$$\int_{0}^{z_{0}} \rho(z-z')R(z')dz' \langle R(0) \int_{0}^{z_{0}} \rho(z-z')dz' \qquad (A.10)$$

Or, in view of Eq. (A.2b),

$$\int_{0}^{z_{o}} \rho(z-z')R(z')dz' < R(o) \left\{ M(z) - M(z-z_{o}) \right\}$$
 (A.11)

Hence, as a result of Eq. (A.5)

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \int_0^{z_0} \rho(z - z') R(z') dz' = 0$$
 (A.12)

Also, following the same reasoning as above,

$$\int_{z_{0}}^{z} \rho(z-z')R(z')dz' \langle R(z_{0})M(z-z_{0})$$
(A.13)

Hence:

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \begin{cases} z \\ \rho(z - z')R(z')dz' < M_{\infty}R(z_{0}) \end{cases}$$
 (A.14)

Now because of the properties of R(z), i.e., Eqs. (A.8a) and (A.8b), the righthand side of Eq. (A.14) can be made as small as one pleases, in the sense that given an ϵ however small there exists a z_0 such that

$$MR[z_o] < \epsilon \tag{A.15}$$

Since z_0 may be any large finite number, $M_\infty R(z_0)$ may differ from zero by an amount which can be made as small as one pleases. In view, therefore, of Eqs. (A.12) and (A.15), Eq. (A.8) is true and the theorem is proved.

Returning to Eq. (A.1), we note that proving this equation is tantamount to showing that

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \int_{0}^{z} \rho(z - z') \left\{ 1 - \frac{cz'}{1 + cz'} \right\}^{1/2} dz' = 0$$
 (A.16)

Hence, since the function 1 - cz'/(1 + cz') has the properties of R(z), Eq. (A.16) and hence Eq. (A.1) are proved.

APPENDIX B

NUMERICAL SCHEME FOR TREATING THE PRESENT CONSTITUTIVE MODEL UNDER STRESS-DRIVEN CONDITIONS

The numerical scheme used to generate the model predictions presented in this report is described below. The approach consists of an explicit incremental Euler scheme developed specifically for numerically treating the governing system of equations for the model under stress-driven conditions. Due to its explicit nature, care must be taken to insure that the prescribed increments are sufficiently small that the computed behavior is independent of the increment size. Otherwise, the scheme is straightforward, efficient and easy to implement.*

The basic system of equations which govern the behavior of the model are as follows:

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} z_{H} \\ \phi(z_{H} - z') \frac{d\epsilon^{P}}{dz'} dz' \end{cases}$$
 (8.2)

$$d_{\mathbb{S}} = 2\mu \left(d_{\mathbb{S}} - d_{\mathbb{S}}^{p} \right) \tag{B.3}$$

^{*.} This numerical scheme is due to Dr. H. Murakami, a consultant to S-CUBED and Assistant Professor, University of California, San Diego.

$$d\sigma = K(d\epsilon - d\epsilon^p)$$
 (B.4)

$$dz^2 = \left| \left| dg^p \right| \right|^2 + k^2 \left(d\epsilon^p \right)^2$$
 (8.5)

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$$dz_{s} = dz/F_{s} \tag{B.6}$$

$$dz_{H} = dz/(kF_{H})$$
 (B.7)

Following the approach described in Section 2, the kernel functions $\rho(z_s)$ and $\phi(z_H)$ are represented by exponential series of the form:

$$\rho = \sum_{\Gamma} A_{\Gamma} e^{-\alpha_{\Gamma}^2 s}$$
 (8.8)

$$\phi = \sum_{i} B_{i} e^{-\beta_{i} z_{H}}$$
 (B.9)

It then follows that the expressions for \lesssim and σ given by Eqs. (B.1) and (B.2) can be alternately written as

$$\sigma = \sum_{i} P_{i}$$
 (B.11)

where \mathbf{Q}_r and \mathbf{P}_i satisfy the following ordinary differential equations:

$$\frac{dQ_r}{dz_s} + \alpha_r Q_r = A_r \frac{de^p}{dz_s}$$
 (B.12)

$$\frac{dP_i}{dz_H} + \beta_i P_i = B_i \frac{d\epsilon^p}{dz_H}$$
 (B.13)

From Eqs. (B.10) to (B.13), we can write:

$$d_{S} = \overline{A} d_{g}^{p} - Q dz_{g}$$
 (B.14)

$$d\sigma = \overline{B} de^{P} - P dz_{H}$$
 (B.15)

(B.16)

where

$$\bar{A} = \sum_{r} A_{r}$$

$$g = \sum_{r} a_{r} g_{r}$$

 $\bar{B} = \sum_{i} B_{i}$

$$P = \sum_{i} \beta_{i} P_{i}$$

Introducing Eqs. (B.6) and (B.7) into Eqs. (B.14) and (B.15) leads to the expressions:

$$de^{p} = \frac{1}{A} \left[ds + \frac{g}{F_{s}} dz \right]$$
 (8.17)

$$d\epsilon^{P} = \frac{1}{B} \left(d\sigma + \frac{P}{kF_{H}} dz \right)$$
 (B.18)

which when combined with Eq. (B.5), leads to the following quadratic expression for dz:

$$a dz^2 + b dz + c = 0$$
 (B.19)

where

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$$a = 1 - \frac{9 \cdot 9}{\left(\overline{A} F_{S}\right)^{2}} - \left(\frac{P}{B F_{H}}\right)^{2}$$

$$b = -2 \left(\frac{9 \cdot d_{S}}{\overline{A}^{2} F_{S}} + \frac{kP}{B^{2} F_{H}}\right) d\sigma$$

$$c = -\left[\frac{d_{S} \cdot d_{S}}{\overline{A}^{2}} + \left(\frac{k d\sigma}{\overline{R}}\right)^{2}\right]$$
(B.20)

Thus, for prescribed values of ds and $d\sigma$, dz is given by the equation:

$$dz = -\frac{b}{2a} + \frac{1}{2a} \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$$
 (B.12)

and by using Eqs. (B.17) and (B.18), de^p and de^p can then be found, after which de and de are determined from Eqs. (B.3) and (B.4). Therefore, this approach allows the strain increments de to be found for prescribed increments in the stress de.

APPENDIX C

DERIVATION OF EQUATION (4.12)

When σ is on the linear portion of the hydrostatic stress-strain curve, it follows, from Eq. (3.37), that

$$\sigma = k K_o \left(1 + \beta S_H\right) \frac{dS_H}{dz}$$
 (C.1)

This expression may be combined with Eq. (3.36), i.e.,

$$dz^{2} = d\varsigma_{s}^{2} + k^{2} d\varsigma_{H}^{2}$$
 (C.2)

to give the following result:

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$$dz \left\{ 1 - \left[\frac{\sigma_1}{K_o(1 + \beta \varsigma)} \right]^2 \right\}^{1/2} = d\varsigma_s$$
 (C.3)

where σ_1 denotes the reference pressure on the linear portion of the hydrostat.

We may decompose ζ_H into two terms and write:

$$K_o(1 + \beta S_H) = K_o(1 + \beta S_H) + K_o \beta S_H^S$$
 (C.4)

where $\varsigma_{\rm H}$ is the value of $\varsigma_{\rm H}$ due solely to hydrostatic compression, while $\varsigma_{\rm H}^{\rm S}$ is the component due strictly to shear. For shear at $\sigma=\sigma_1$, it follows that

$$\sigma_1 = K_o(1 + \beta \varsigma_H) \tag{C.4}$$

Hence, Eq. (C.4) can be rewritten in the form:

$$K_o(1 + \beta \varsigma_H) = \sigma_1 + K_o\beta \varsigma_H^s \tag{C.5}$$

Upon substituting Eq. (C.5) into Eq. (C.3), we obtain the result

$$\frac{d\varsigma_{s}}{dz} = \left\{1 - \left[\frac{1}{1 + \frac{\kappa_{o}\beta}{\sigma_{1}}} \varsigma_{H}^{s}\right]^{2}\right\}^{1/2}$$
(C.6)

When $\sigma = \sigma_1$, it follows from Eq. (C.1) that

$$\sigma_1 = k K_o \left(1 + \beta \varsigma_H' + \beta \varsigma_H^s \right) \frac{d \varsigma_H^s}{dz}$$
 (C.7)

so that

$$dz = k \left[1 + \frac{K_o \beta}{\sigma_1} \varsigma_H^s \right] d \varsigma_H^s$$
 (C.8)

Let

$$y = z = z' \tag{C.9}$$

$$x = 1 + \frac{\kappa_0 \beta}{\sigma_1} \varsigma_H^s \tag{C.10}$$

where z' denotes the value of z at which shearing begins. Then Eq. (C.8) can be written

$$dy = \left(\frac{k\sigma_1}{K_0\beta}\right) \times dx \tag{C.11}$$

Integrating yields

$$y = \frac{1}{2a} (x^2 - 1)$$
 (C.12)

where we have set

$$a = \frac{\beta K_o}{k\sigma_1} \tag{C.13}$$

From Eqs. (C.6) and (C.10), it follows that

$$\frac{d\varsigma_s}{dz} = \left[1 - \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^2\right]^{1/2} \tag{C.14}$$

Using Eq. (C.13), we can rewrite Eq. (3.11) in the form:

$$dz = \frac{x dx}{a}$$
 (C.15)

since dy \approx dz. Eqs. (C.14) and (C.15) may now be combined to give

$$dS_{s} = \frac{1}{a} (x^{2} - 1)^{1/2} dx$$
 (C.16)

which, upon integration, leads to the result:

$$\varsigma_{s} = \frac{1}{2a} \left\{ x \sqrt{x^{2} - 1} - \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^{2} - 1} \right| \right\}$$
(C.17)

But from (C.12), we have

$$x^2 - 1 = 2 \text{ ay}$$
 $x^2 = 1 + 2 \text{ ay}$
(C.18)

which, in view of Eq. (C.9), may be rewritten in the form:

$$x^{2} - 1 = 2a z_{s}$$
 (C.19)
 $x^{2} = 1 + 2a z_{s}$,

since for $F_s = 1$, we have

$$dz_s = dz$$

and

$$z_s = z - z' . (C.20)$$

Upon combining Eqs. (C.17) and (C.19),. the following expression is obtained:

$$\zeta_{s} = \frac{1}{2a} \left\{ \sqrt{2a z_{s}} \sqrt{1 + 2a z_{s}} - \log \left| \sqrt{2a z_{s}} + \sqrt{1 + 2a z_{s}} \right| \right\} (C.21)$$

which is Eq. (4.12) given in the main text.

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